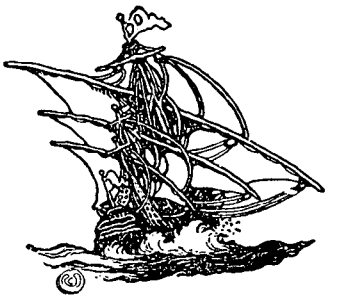
THE SURVEY

MIDMONTHLY

FEBRUARY 15, 1925



The Child Labor Panic
Felix Adler

Black-Coats and Overalls
G. D. H. Cole

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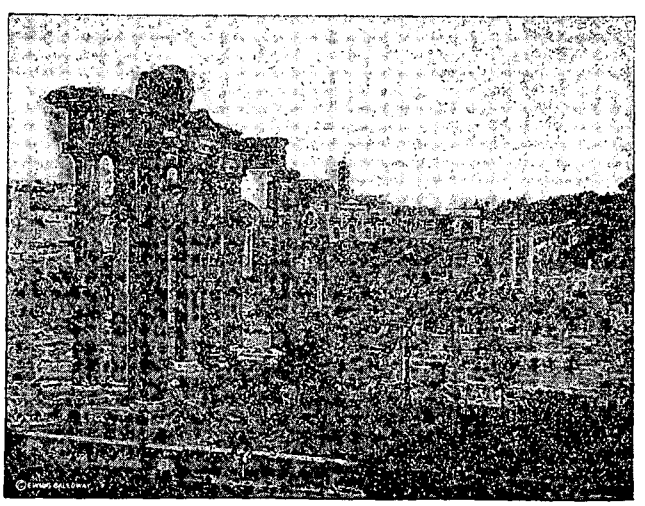

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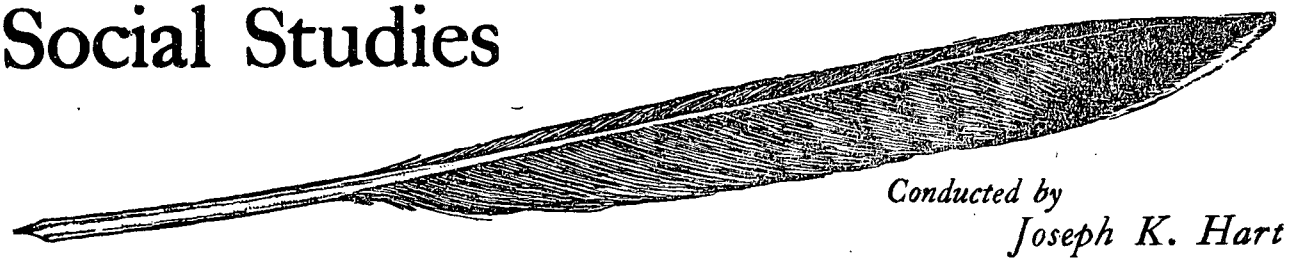
Social Studies



Conducted by
Joseph K. Hart

The Faint Light of Reason

IT seems sometimes that in our complicated civilization the hardest thing to do is to follow the obvious clue of reason. How much of the difficulty is due to the weight of the folkways, how much to those emotional attitudes of which the psychiatrists so persuasively remind us, how much to the subtle influence of those who prosper by existing irrationalities, we are not yet wise enough to say. But we are often brought face to face with a situation where elaborate propaganda seems in order to give common sense a chance. Many of us belong to societies which spend much money and infinite effort just to get us and our neighbors to brush our teeth, or keep our minds in reasonably good order, to take seriously the constitutional guarantee of free speech, or accomplish some other obvious purpose.

It seems wholly rational for folks with small reserves to pool what they have against a day of need, and for individual apple-growers to sell cooperatively instead of spoiling each others market—yet when credit unions and cooperative marketing are established and do thrive it is a matter of note; and all sorts of complicating factors in the law without and habits of thought within have to be dealt with before such success is possible.

The obvious thing for folks with minds to do is to think—or at least to listen to what other folks think. Yet it takes an ornate array of movements to provide "adult education"—and he would be a wise prophet who would untangle all the various motives that go into them. If there is a way to protect children against diphtheria, the obvious thing is to use it promptly and universally; but even the thrilling story of the dash of dog-teams across Alaska with the precious serum will not be enough to persuade some mothers to go 'round the corner for antitoxin for their own children before it is too late.

The fact is that while finding out what is the reasonable thing to do is the first step in hitching the world along; rationality alone gets us nowhere. Digging a straight course through our inertia is like digging the Panama Canal through the Culebra Cut. It's hard work to use the cutting tools of common sense. We need emotional dynamite to break through.

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A Page of Letters

Which We Wish to Share with the Whole Fellowship of Survey Associates

YOU may be sure we are looking on at your performances in the Survey office with great admiration; and that, without any jealousy of your achievements, we are always stimulated to livelier cerebration and more assiduous effort, by the way in which you compel us to pay a lot of attention to the successive issues of the Survey Graphic.—ALBERT SHAW, *Editor Review of Reviews.*

May I congratulate you once more on the fineness of the work being done by the Survey. The recent number which contained articles on Gandhi, Calles, and the article by Bruère on the issue between Stone and the United Mine Workers was a marvel. I do not remember ever seeing before such masterful treatments of such various themes brought together within the pages of a single magazine issue.—FRANCIS J. MCCONNELL, *Bishop, M. E. Church, Pittsburgh.*

Sometime after the first of the year I will send in a contribution of $50 for next year. I think the Survey is increasing its influence. I am glad to say that I disagree with what it does and thinks quite often; which indicates, I take it, that it isn't running in any narrow rut. This is, of course, not saying that I do not agree with it frequently also.—O. K. CUSHING, *Attorney at Law, San Francisco.*

I am simply carried away with the fine magazine you are putting out. It is to be commended. It is a much more worth while magazine than it was when I used to read it years ago in college. I don't see any reason for its not being in every home that is interested in social and moral improvement.—LEONARD F. MORSE, *Mobile County Training School, Plateau, Ala.*

It occurs to me you might be interested in my "extension" project with The Survey. It consists in urging my thirty students who are subscribers to send their Surveys home after they have been read in college. My boys and girls are almost all from Maine—many from rural districts—and I think the educational value of The Survey to parents and uncles and aunts will be significant.—BERTHA J. HOWARD, *Orono, Maine.*

I am very desirous of obtaining about thirty copies each of the issues of The Survey for April 1 and July 1, 1924, in order that our Freshman Orientation Course may read the articles by Hackett on "Manufacturers of Consent," and by Geddes Smith on "Petersburg Plus." Will you please inform me at your early convenience whether I will be able to purchase these of you, or if not from yourself whether any distributing firms are liable to have copies of these issues? As other possibilities in the event that you have no back numbers available, have you any reprints of these particular articles? Finally if all of these attempts should fail, may we obtain your permission to have these two articles mimeographed for use by our course of 250 students?—JOHN MERRIMAN GAUS, *Department of Political Science, University of Minnesota.*

Never have we known such reaction to a magazine as the May issue of the Survey Graphic! The influence has been far reaching. . . . The library copy has almost worn out! Enclosed is a check for a dollar hoping that we may still be permitted to purchase two more copies (May issue).

No doubt this would be asking too much... Forgive us if it is... Would you on any conditions permit us to reprint "A Hundred Years of Revolution" by Plutarco Elias Calles? Would you loan us the two cuts? Of course, we shall acknowledge the courtesy both with the article and in an editorial, sending you the magazine, postage, and whatever you should request.—ESTHER TURNER WELLMAN, *Editor The official organ of the Methodist Episcopal Church in Mexico, Mexico City, Mexico.*

Baroness Ishimoto was most appreciative of your kind words about her in The Survey and very happy that you got the point of her birth control agitation. Many Americans get the idea as a Japanese policy and are blind to its application to us.

I have sent The Survey to the Federation of Women in Tokyo as a gift and know it will be enjoyed and used widely. When I was there the assistant mayor had a copy in his pocket often and I know he read it.—MARY BEARD, *New York.*

Why not expose some friend of yours to The Survey?

SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC.

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THE SURVEY—Twice-a-month—$5.00 a year
SURVEY GRAPHIC—Monthly—$3.00 a year

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THE SURVEY, *published semi-monthly and copyright* 1925 *by* SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC., 112 *East* 19 *Street, New York.*
Price: This issue (February 15, 1925, *Vol. LIII, No.* 10) 25 *cents a copy;* $5 *a year; Canadian postage,* 60 *cents; foreign postage* $1 *extra. Changes of address should be mailed us two weeks in advance. When payment is by check a receipt will be sent only upon request.*
Entered as second-class matter, March 25, 1909, *at the post office, New York, N. Y., under the Act of March* 3, 1879. *Acceptance for mailing at a special rate of postage provided for in Section* 1103, *Act of October* 3, 1917, *authorized on June* 26, 1918.

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THE SURVEY

Midmonthly Number

Vol. LIII, No. 10 February 15, 1925

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The Gist of It

IN Survey Graphic for January of this year W. L. Chenery examined the New Alignment on Child Labor. To some particular groups of opponents—the conscientious objectors, so to say—Dr. Adler offers on p. 565 a reasoned, reassuring and clean-cut answer. The article is based on an address recently delivered before the New York Ethical Culture Society which, as almost everyone knows, Dr. Adler established nearly half a century ago.

CREDIT UNIONS are a simple, sensible device for pooling the financial resources of a group of people to meet individual needs as they occur. Mr. Bergengren, who discusses them on p. 567, is actively promoting their organization in association with Edward A. Filene through the Credit Union National Extension Bureau in B ston.

WHETHER one has "nerves" or not it is important to understand them. Tom Williams, who writes of them (p. 577), is neurologist to the Gallinger Municipal Hospital in Washington and author of Dreads and Besetting Fears. Wintering in Miami, he has lost no time in opening a mental hygiene clinic there and reports that a society of mental hygiene is in process of organization too.

MISS OGDEN, who reports the conference on the causes and cure of war (p. 570) is membership secretary of the Foreign Policy Association.

EDWARD NORMAN, who tells what he found among the apple-growers of Clintondale (p. 603) is a recent graduate of Harvard who is a volunteer assistant this winter at The Survey's industrial desk.

A LEADER in the British movement for guild socialism, G. D. H. Cole is best known here, perhaps, as an exponent of the newer unionism. On p. 598 he discusses the growth of unionism in the black-coat ranks—the technicians, clerical and professional workers—which he will follow further in a succeeding article.

AFTER summer school, what happens to workers who have this brief glimpse of "culture"? Miss Kingsbury, who tells some of the sequels (p. 600) is director of the department of social economy at Bryn Mawr.

HOW Northwestern University had a patriotic panic is the theme of C. DeWitt Norton, secretary of the Young Men's Christian Association there (p. 593).

THE COUNTY Achievement Contest in the hill country of Kentucky which Mr. Vaughan describes on p. 588 was conducted under his direction as secretary and superintendent of extension of Berea College and Allied Schools.

CINCINNATI'S ten-year story of federated progress is told by the assistant secretary of the Cincinnati Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies, who left Cincinnati at the beginning of the decade and has but recently returned (p. 591).

IOWA, state of the tall corn and of tall problems, is a livelier and more progressive place because of the initiative and enterprise of the state university and of Miss Cottrell herself (p. 581). Her official title, she admits, is extension assistant professor of social welfare.

HALF-WAY between the law and social work, and sharing the concepts of both, Mr. Wismer, director of the Detroit Legal Aid Bureau, is well situated to discuss what the lawyer thinks of the social worker and his or her ways (p. 585).

THE BRISK sequel to Gasoline Gypsies which begins on p. 583 and The Survey hopes there'll be more of them—comes from Edna Tibbits Hawley, executive secretary of the Benton County Chapter of the Red Cross, at Corvallis, Oregon.

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Hendrik Willem Van Loon

STATES RIGHTS

The Constable: Well, maybe I ought to try and save that kid.
But I'd better find out whether he fell in from
this state or not. . . .

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THE SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY

February 15
1925

Volume LIII
No. 10

The Child Labor Panic

By Felix Adler

A PANIC is not due to the arguments advanced by those who are subject to it. The panic comes first, and then the arguments are picked up. There is a panic now over the child labor movement. It may be that it will defeat the amendment; it has already done so for the time being. But I should not be absolutely discouraged even if this defeat seemed decisive, for I see that our capricious democracy swings first one way and then another. I should simply wait for the next swing—and there will be a swing in our direction after a while. In the meantime, for the sake of our own self-respect, and for the sake of the pool of opinion to which we are all contributing, it is worth while to examine both the panic and the arguments which go along with it.

Why are people so excited? Why do they talk of this national child labor amendment so fiercely? There is propaganda—far-reaching propaganda. And people who are discussing the amendment have not the time really to inform themselves. It is one of the terrible problems of democracy that great masses of the people are asked to decide questions on which they have not the facts. There is wild talk about Moscow giving orders to the National Child Labor Committee. Some of the people get curiously wrong notions because of that word *National;* they think of nationalization; one woman said she was not in favor of the amendment because she did not believe that Congress should have the power to restrict the size of families!

If I were approaching the subject for the first time I should first ask myself: What is the object of those who have really been the fathers of this movement? And you have our record. Some twenty years ago a stranger entered my study who afterwards became one of my closest and most beloved friends. He had a nature singularly compounded of strength and sweetness. There was Irish fighting blood in him, and at the same time he had the gentlest of hearts. An Episcopalian clergyman of Montgomery, Alabama, Edgar Gardner Murphy was the leader of the forlorn hope that was fighting against child labor in that state. He came North to say that he must have the assistance of the nation, that the force against him was so strong that there must be cooperation from among representatives of all the states to help out wherever it was necessary.

And therfore he proposed the National Child Labor Committee, and he urged me to take the chairmanship of that committee. I demurred, naturally, giving reasons that were not pretexts—my hands were full—but he prevailed. I did not know that I was a Bolshevik then—or now. The committee is composed now of the same elements as in the beginning. President Roosevelt at one time was an honorary member; President Taft was an honorary member; the late Cardinal Gibbons spoke with me on the same platform in New Orleans when we had our meeting there. Some of the early leaders are still members of the committee, others have given way to persons of the same type—well-known respected citizens.

In the second place, if I were called upon for a judgment of these widely advertised perils of federal action, I should perhaps suddenly remember that a federal law was actually enforced for nearly three years and that there was no serious popular objection. People are always forgetting that. The law was favored by the president. There was no nationalization, no destruction of the home; the daughter was not prohibited from helping her mother in domesic service; nor did we make lazy louts of these boys of eighteen. The work of the Children's Bureau was carried on well and modestly and there was the most splendid cooperation between the national and the state authorities.

Why not look at what happened instead of conjecturing what will happen?

WHAT is the cause of this sudden change of sentiment —why for instance, has the New York World—which was the champion of the child and favored the child labor amendment— now made a volte-face which has influenced many of its readers? People say the amendment means that the law will interfere, that it will come into the home. I am referring now not to those who are opposed to the regulation, the limitation or the prohibition of child labor, but

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to those who see danger in the amendment and maintain that these duties should be left to the states.

I think it is the eighteenth amendment that has created a feeling that unless local opinion supports a law it is unenforceable, and becomes a stench in the public nostrils, like this bootlegging business. Some who believe that prohibition should be left to local option argue that child labor legislation likewise should be left to local option, because if local opnion is not in favor of it then it cannot be enforced.

But when we get down to the basis of this question, I believe there is a difference between those cases in which a law cannot be enforced unless local opinion has previously favored it, and those cases in which the law, as soon as it is passed, creates the local opinion that favors it. The difference becomes clear in the case of prohibition. The difficulty of enforcing the prohibition law is that there are people who think that the law is a wrong done to themselves. A man says: "My conscience does not approve of this law; it wrongs me, because I believe in personal liberty. (I am not examining the argument; I am merely stating it.) "I have the right to say what I shall do in matters that concern only myself. I have the right to drink or not to drink—to go to perdition if I choose." In cases where people believe that a law is wrong it is not enforceable. Public opinion must first be convinced that it is right. That is the argument.

The same thing is not true where the harm done, if there is harm, concerns not you as an individual, but someone else whom you are harming. Then the law has a right and duty to interfere. You may commit suicide if you like but if you kill your neighbor, society acts.

Now the person who has robbed or drained the life out of a little child has done it under some pretext: "It is business; it won't harm the child; I worked at that age and it did not harm me." He fills himself with sophistries. But when once the nation speaks, when society says No, his eyes are opened, he sees and agrees that it is wrong. Where the wrong concerns not only himself but someone else his conscience can be jogged up to the level of the public conscience and so a local opinion is created that is favorable to the public law.

Do not think that this is an academic statement. The facts confirm it. When the federal labor law was in force there was no objection to it on the part of the public. The state of Alabama, which was in the rear of the column when the law was passed, went right up to the front. West Virginia, too, improved its legislation. The declaration by the nation that it is a wrong to harm the child was not contrary to state action—it promoted, quickened, strengthened, reinforced state action. Let me add that the state officials of thirty-one states have approved this amendment on the ground that it will be beneficial to the states.

A WORD more as to the position of some honest objectors. They push aside all the nonsensical rubbish that has been talked about interfering with the home, preventing the daughter from helping the mother, making husky boys of eighteen into loafers—and take their stand on the ground that social legislation should be left to the states, and that this amendment is a step in the direction of the nation's assuming responsibility for social legislation.

Now every step should be judged on its own merits. And in this case I have just shown that the action of the nation in passing a modest minimum law, introducing no innovation, was such as to quicken, to lift the standard where it was too low, and to help further progress in states where the standard was already higher. In the matter of social legislation you cannot draw a hard and fast line; you cannot say that social legislation should be left to the states and that the nation should not take any part in it. You cannot say, like King Solomon: "Let the child be cut in twain. Give a half to each." There is no competition here for exclusive rights in the protection of American children. Instead of two rivals for the rights of motherhood, it is a case of a father and a mother who must cooperate. State and nation must go hand in hand in social legislation. You cannot separate them by geographical line.

Was there ever greater interference with social legislation in the states than the abolition of slavery? And has not the South long ago admitted that the change of system was beneficial all around Does anyone believe that if it were put to the vote the South would go back to slavery? The nation acted and brought up the conscience of that section of the country. And the conscience of the South slowly but surely and effectively accepted the decision as right.

How was it about polygamy in 1882? Was it left to the Mormon people to legislate whether polygamy should be permitted or not? In 1882 when Utah was still a territory an act was passed making polygamy subject to punishment by fine and imprisonment of not over five years. When it was admitted as a state there was a clause in its constitution forbidding polygamy, and it was further provided, before Congress acted to admit it, that this particular provision should never be revoked by the people of the state, except with the consent of the nation.

PEOPLE object, again, to the extension of the powers of government. When you speak of the extension of government you must again discriminate. The ability to discriminate is really essential to correct judgment. If the government assumed control of the railroads, or, as has been proposed, took over some of the great industries, that would be socialization, and many people who are not opposed to national progress would greatly doubt the wisdom of letting the government do business. But it is another matter to decide whether the government shall have the power to increase its administrative force. If you find that the police force is not sufficient, you do not cry out against the extension of government power in New York when it is proposed to increase it. If the national child labor amendment is carried and forms the basis of a new law, there will be no extension of government in the sphere of business. There will be, there ought to be, an increase in the number of administrative officers, in the bureaucracy, if you like. "Bureaucracy" is one of the scare-crows at present. An honest bureaucracy, however, is a great help to the government. A bureaucracy will be honest if there is assurance of tenure of office—if you have a good civil service system. And it can be undermanned as well as overmanned. With false economy we are often undermanning our bureaucracy. In the state of Georgia, for instance, I am told there is only one inspector to look into the enforcement of its child labor laws. My reply to those who fear a great bureaucracy is: look at the facts. What will happen? There were only fifty-one additional people employed in the federal service during those three years when the federal child labor

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law was in force. Suppose there should be hundreds. If they are needed, and if we have the right civil service, the increase is not to be feared, but welcomed.

WE are not an evilly disposed people, but we are a terribly reckless people. Our resources, the richness of the country, and the confluence here of vigorous individuals from many lands has brought about a race for wealth that stops short at little—a kind of money monomania that estimates human beings in terms of dollars. But there are certain things which are holy, certain things which must not be violated. The child is a sacred thing, not to be used up and drained of its strength: a child should not work at all when it is very young, and when fourteen or fifteen years of age should not work at night or more than eight hours a day, and when it is sixteen should not be exposed to poisonous gases and morally degrading surroundings. Work and education may go together, in fact should go together, for the best workers will be the educated workers.

But there are those who say "The states will be coming on; they are doing pretty well; why be in such a hurry?"

I am thinking of 412,000 children that are not protected at all by the states in the different ways which I have indicated. I am thinking not of a negligible quantity—15,000 of them under fourteen according to the latest statistics for 1920, 172,000 fourteen and fifteen, 234,000 sixteen and seventeen are employed in mining or mechanical and manufacturing establishments. But whatever they be, these figures stand only for a few years. In a few years from now these groups that I have mentioned will pass on, other children of fourteen to fifteen, and so on in the other age groups, will take their places, so that in the course of a dozen years you can triple or quadruple the figures of those affected.

Things are not going well enough. There was improvement during those three years of federal action. Since then there has been a halt. And some of us fear that with the restriction of immigration and resulting shortage of labor, and with the processes of industrialization going on in the newer states, there will be growing pressure for cheap labor, child labor—cheap in the most miserable and pathetic sense. It is not a question of "either or," of legislation in the states or legislation in Congress. It is a question of creating an arrangement which will quicken and stimulate the action of the states by the support of the national conscience as expressed in a national law. After all we are a nation; we are beginning to feel ourselves as one; and I think the time is coming—if it has not yet come—when the whole nation will realize its duty to see that there shall not be a single child slave—north, south, east or west—in these United States.

E Pluribus Unum Banking

By Roy F. Bergengren

SHE was a little girl named Rita, and she carried in her hand, after the fashion of a sailor's bundle, a handkerchief—so heavily weighted that she could hardly lift it up to the counter of the credit union located in a settlement house in the Boston North End. After the treasurer of the credit union had untangled the many knots, out tumbled a vast accumulation of pennies—three hundred and fifty-six in all. With them Rita had come to open her account.

This particular credit union was organized three years ago by eight young men who were accustomed to gather weekly at the settlement house which is patronized almost exclusively by the Italians who predominate in that district; eight young men—almost boys—who started the credit union with fifteen dollars. It went slowly for many months; the credit union was something new and must prove itself to men and women who were suffering even then from the immediate after-effects of the closing of two banks by the State Department of Banking, banks that had specialized in the business of the North End. Now, after three years, the credit union has assets of a bit better than ten thousand dollars and is rapidly winning the confidence of the people who will eventually make use of it in large numbers.

Bill needed to borrow one hundred and fifty dollars. In the state where Bill lives private money lenders are permitted by law to charge 36 per cent per annum on loans of less than $300 and are under regulation. The lender Bill approached, however, had other ideas about interest and at the same time wanted to be accommodating; so he had Bill execute a note for three hundred and one dollars, thereby taking this particular transaction out of the operation of the small loans law. This note called for a monthly interest rate of 10 per cent—120 per cent per annum. Then the lender gave Bill one hundred and fifty dollars in cash and a receipt showing a repayment on the original loan amounting to one hundred and fifty-one dollars. The transaction was then completed except for the business of repaying the loan. Analyzing this transaction we find that Bill is paying interest at the rate of 240 per cent per annum. When he makes a payment on account of the principal the rate remains undisturbed—10 per cent a month on $301. Possibly some ingenious and well trained cross-word puzzle expert can readily work out the rate Bill actually will be paying when his loan has all been repaid except ten dollars.

The credit union is still, in this country, a relatively unfamiliar form of cooperation; but its advantages, as Mr. Bergengren sketches them, are so sound and so obvious that its growth seems assured. A dozen to fifteen state legislatures will have the opportunity during the year to pass laws authorizing and safeguarding the organization of credit unions. The states considering bills of this sort at present are listed on the following page.

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To Make Credit Unions Possible

There are credit union laws in eighteen states; two of them need amendment before they can be used effectively. The states having adequate credit union laws are Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Mississippi, Louisiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, Wisconsin, Texas and Oregon; the laws in Nebraska and Utah need amendment. If you are interested in organizing a credit union in any of these states write to the author of this article in care of The Survey. He will establish contact for you with someone qualified to assist you. During 1925 bills to authorize credit union organization will be pending before the state legislatures of West Virginia, Florida, Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Minnesota, Oklahoma, Montana, Washington and California, and possibly Connecticut, Georgia, Arkansas, Kansas and Wyoming. If you live in any of these states *your cooperation is needed.* Mr. Bergengren will be glad to tell you how you can give it.

That is immaterial, however, as a credit union came to Bill's rescue and he has served his purpose in this narrative. This transaction illustrates usury in the style of 1925 A. D. The best definition of usury I have ever seen reads: "Usury is the normal result of a combination of two circumstances; an acute need of credit coupled with a complete break down of normal credit facilities."

Once a month the directors of the Massachusetts Credit Union League meet in the very modest office of the league in Boston. The league is a voluntary association of sixty-nine Massachusetts credit unions. The board consists of twenty members, most of them typical treasurers of credit unions. The total assets of the credit unions they represent approximate five million dollars and the total business transacted by their credit unions last year would probably equal twice that amount. They discuss problems of "interest rates," "investments," "credit," "reserves" and the like. As you listen to them you suddenly realize that these men and women represent a new force, the principle of cooperation applied to banking; that they are the product of a new education in democracy—as applied to possibly the most important phase of national economics.

The credit union is primarily concerned with these things: with thrift which recognizes small savings and makes of the business of saving a good habit; with credit which specializes in such small problems of credit that it can eventually not only eliminate usury but bring to the many the benefits of an intelligent use of credit; with education that recognizes the necessity that, in a democracy, the masses of the people should know something about the management and control of money.

TO understand a bit more of the possibilities of this subject, let's take a little walk. It's a typical New England morning—some snow on the ground; the threat of more snow in the air. We are in Boston. A gentleman just arrived from Arkansas has come to Massachusetts to learn something about cooperative banking, to fortify his reading with some personal contact with the cooperative principle in actual operation. It is a matter of great surprise to him that Massachusetts passed a law fifteen years ago to authorize one important type of cooperative bank.

Our first objective is the Telephone Workers Credit Union. There are eight credit unions composed of employes of the New England Telephone and Telegraph Company, located in Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts and Rhode Island. The first was incorporated in March, 1917 and began business with fifteen members and initial capital of $3.75. After this modest beginning the credit union idea took hold in good shape and the first report showed a total membership of 147 and assets of $941.31. Originally this credit union took members from wherever the company operates. This became unwieldy and a credit union was organized in Rhode Island for the employes of the company in that state and, as soon as the state laws permitted, credit unions in Maine and New Hampshire were added. The next step was the division of Massachusetts into districts with credit unions in Springfield, Worcester, Lowell and New Bedford making, together with the "mother credit union" at Boston, eight in all. The original fifteen members have increased and multiplied until the present total membership is over thirteen thousand; the initial $3.75 has also increased a bit in the seven years to a present total in excess of a million and a quarter dollars.

We made an inspection of the finely appointed "banking room" of the credit union in Milk Street where this unit alone did a business of a million, three hundred and seventy-six thousand dollars last year.

Then we take a car over to East Cambridge, going below the street surface to get an "elevated" train—as one can only in Boston. One who delights in contrasts would enjoy studying credit unions. There are at least four Cambridges—all living in the same house but hardly on speaking terms with each other: the City of Colleges, the City of Residences, the City of Industry and East Cambridge. In East Cambridge anyone who has travelled much in American cities will feel right at home. It's a crowded section for the most part; all sorts of folks live there—with little shops and big shops and churches and synagogues on the same street and all the varieties of racial intermixture, of good fortune and bad fortune to be found in a similar section of almost any large city.

On one of the quieter streets is a little neighborhood synagogue; one night two years ago the Central Credit Union was organized there by eighteen women. Its membership is confined to women. It is a neighborhood affair and not anxious to expand unduly, and after two years, it has seventy members—representing possibly forty families—and assets of $4,400. The women are, for the most part, housewives and their business is the business of keeping house; the money they have accumulated for the most part out of their household allowances.

We visited the treasurer and talked with her in her "office" which is also her kitchen, her children—lively little urchins—supplying much incidental entertainment. The credit union, which meets one night a week in the synagogue, did a business last year of $13,031! While the treasurer had had no bookkeeping experience before she was called to the management of the bank, the examiners from the State Department of Banking, who had the unusual experience of examining the books in this same kitchen were unable to find anything the matter with them. This credit union makes the sort of loans that would naturally be of greatest

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value to these families: loans to relieve unemployment, to pay for an operation or to help Mr. A. start a bit of a business, to make it possible for Rachel to attend Normal School. The fund is a community asset which accomplishes amazing benefits for those who own it. The Central Credit Union is every bit as successful as the credit unions of telephone workers.

Here possibly we may leave the gentleman from Arkansas who takes the train to go back home to induce the Arkansas legislature to enact a credit union law. In Massachusetts he has seen credit unions of postal workers, state and municipal employes, employes of factories, mills, department stores, neighborhood and community groups, members of church parishes and many more. He has seen the cooperative principle in actual operation.

WHILE we are taking a jump south to a little mountain settlement in Tennessee, some three thousand feet above the sea level, the best part of a day's journey up hill from Knoxville—we will lower the curtain as is done in all well regulated plays to note the lapse of time, and this will be a good time to explain the credit union system.

The credit union has a substantial historical background. In Massachusetts credit unions have been operating for fifteen years; in Canada since 1900; for over three quarters of a century in various parts of Europe. Their record for honest and efficient management is excellent. The initial credit union in North America, organized by Desjardins at Levis in the Province of Quebec has operated for twenty-four years without a bad loan. It started with assets of twenty-six dollars and now has nearly a million and a half. The Skandia Credit Union of Worcester, Massachusetts, with assets in eight years of almost a million dollars, has a similar record. Credit unions in general have shown few losses and much honest management.

Credit unions are in the strictest sense cooperative organizations. To be a member one must own a share and each member has a single vote in the management, however many shares he may own. Money is accumulated exclusively from the members and loans are made exclusively to members. The business is managed by boards and committees chosen by and from the membership and all profits are divided among the members in interest and dividends.

Shares have a small par value—generally five dollars—payable in cash or in weekly installments, the installment unit being generally twenty-five cents; the emphasis is on serving the small saver and making saving habitual. Loans are made for provident purposes. The test is—does the loan promise to be of benefit to the borrower? Loans are repayable in weekly instalments and interest rates are low.

Twenty per cent of the net earnings are annually appropriated to a reserve fund.

UP goes the curtain again. The scene is the interior of a little wooden schoolhouse in the Tennessee mountains; a snow storm, almost a blizzard is raging outside. We gather in a circle round a red-hot pot-bellied stove, close up because it is drafty and a bit cold in the far corners of the schoolroom. The farmers have come in with their women folk, despite the storm and the fact that the nearest house is a full mile away through the woods. These folks are organizing the first rural credit union of mountain farmers under a recently enacted Tennessee credit union law.

Space limitations prevent a discussion of the problems of the folks of the Southern Highlands; so much has already been written about them that possibly no further discussion is necessary. Three needs at least stand out prominently; the need of credit resources at other than usurious rates of interest; the need to be able to make quantity purchases and to buy cooperatively, with all the resulting savings; the development of a sense of common problems and, with knowledge that their problems are common problems, a will to solve them cooperatively.

Many months after the snowy night on the mountain an advertisement of a patent food for high-bred cattle came to my desk, showing a picture of a pure bred Guernsey bull, owned, cooperatively by the people of this mountain community; and below it a picture of four equally pure-bred Guernsey heifers owned by four members of the credit union and bought with funds provided by credit union loans. Here is a hint of a beginning which contains almost untold possibilities.

Now to Lowe's Grove, North Carolina. Here we encounter some new credit union problems. The difference between cash and time prices on farm necessities is great enough to account for a difference between profit and loss on small farm operations. Crop-liens—blanket mortgages on the farmer's crop executed before the seed is planted—are written at exorbitant rates of interest; farm tenancy, with all its train of inevitable evils, is on the increase. Fortunately for North Carolina, John Sprunt Hill of Durham was a member of a commission from the United States studying cooperative credit societies abroad in 1912. On his return to North Carolina, thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the Raiffeisen rural credit union, he was instrumental in securing in his own states in 1915, the enactment of the first rural credit union law to be adopted in the United States.

The Lowe's Grove Credit Union is typical of Mr. Hill's splendid service to North Carolina. Starting with an original capital of less than three hundred and fifty dollars, the farmers in this small group were able, in 1917, to begin buying their fertilizer cooperatively. Soon they had organized a cooperative buying society in connection with their credit union. In seven years they have bought supplies cooperatively totalling over a quarter of a million dollars at a net saving of more than thirty thousand dollars. While the assets of the credit union have never exceeded $5,000, loans in addition have been made totalling over $70,000 at rates of interest which have never exceeded 6 per cent.

Gone is the crop lien and gone the ruinous time-price. Extension courses in agriculture conducted in the credit union building by instructors from the state university, a library of agricultural books and many other similar activities have followed in natural sequence. Where there was once an old wooden schoolhouse with a single room at the cross roads, there is now a brick elementary school, an agricultural high school and another fine building for community and educational purposes. Lowe's Grove offers another hint of the possibilities of an improved agricultural system as applied to the small farmer—a system more

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worthy of a democracy than one which overburdens farms with usurious mortgages.

IT IS a bit distressing at times (it doesn't happen very often) to have some folks doubt the soundness of the credit union because they dislike the name. Yet, if you will take an old fashioned half-dollar from your purse you will find that the eagle proudly flaunts a ribbon which carries the motto of the United States—E Pluribus Unum—which, according to my dictionary, means 'one composed of many' and is quite fairly descriptive of the fundamental basis of credit union organization. And the Constitution of the United States opens with these much quoted words: "We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union. . . ." A credit union is, as the words imply, an association of individuals in order that they may save money effectively and, as a result of their saving, create credit for themselves. Their organization is a single unit, composed of the many who belong to it. A credit union seeks nothing but the service of its members from any man; it strives to create something for its members by an intelligent use of what is already theirs.

Our social, economic and political institutions must, in the long run, insure an even distribution, among all the people, of opportunity to win for themselves and to enjoy in security a fair measure of contentment and happiness; to stimulate ambition and to give every man the chance to work out a life which shall be worth the living. A condition which makes possible the exactions of the usurer upon the wage worker in desperate need of credit; a condition which fosters crop-liens and drives the small farmer in desperation to abandon his land and to crowd into the nearest city to add to its problems of inadequate housing, unemployment and congestion; a condition which makes for discontent among large numbers of people—none of this should long endure in a democracy. With these problems the credit union is concerning itself; thus far experimentally, but with experiments which have been carried far enough to give hints of great possibilities of patriotic service, patriotic indeed because the most certain guaranty of the perpetuation and perfection of our institutions is to be found in the even distribution of the things which make life worth living. By helping men to understand how most effectively to be of service to themselves, the credit union has a part to play in this process.

From Fatalism to Facts

The cooperating organizations have agreed that we shall neither discuss the horrors of war nor argue whether or not it is possible to abolish it. The conference opens with the conviction firmly fixed that war is a relic of barbarism whose abolition should have been achieved years ago.

WITH this statement by the chairman at the opening session of the Conference on the Cause and Cure of War, held last month in Washington, the ground was cleared in an effort to get at the roots of the problems involved. Considering the time limits of the program the digging went surprisingly deep.

The conference, with Carrie Chapman Catt as general chairman, was called by nine national women's organizations: American Association of University Women, Council of Women for Home Missions, Federation of Woman's Boards of Foreign Missions, General Federation of Women's Clubs, National Board of the Young Women's Christian Associations, National Council of Jewish Women, National League of Women Voters, National Woman's Christian Temperance Union, National Women's Trade Union League.

Assembled in the Hall of Nations from January 18 to 24, with a program calling for three sessions a day, the five hundred or more delegates were there, it was evident, for earnest study and discussion. No divergence from the schedule was encouraged. There may have been delegates who, remembering other conventions, planned for sightseeing in the capitol city. If so, they soon discovered, under the inspiring but inexorable leadership of the chairman, that such excursions could be indulged in only before ten A. M. Mercifully, eight hours for sleep were permitted. No speaker had been chosen for his or her oratorical gifts though, incidentally, such gifts were brilliantly displayed. The search had been for experts who would be severely scientific in their approach, and for such enlightenment as could be given only in that spirit. Thus, Professor Warren Thompson discussed Overpopulation and Migration of Peoples; Professor Edward M. Earle Imperialism; John Foster Dulles had a brilliant paper on Economic Motives and How They Lead to War; The Honorable William Smith Culbertson, of the United States Tariff Commission, discussed Raw Materials, Markets and War. One session and an open forum were devoted to the Protocol of Geneva, expounded by Dr. James T. Shotwell. Dr. Julius Klein, of the Department of Commerce, discussed International Commerce as a Peace Factor. Dr. Samuel G. Inman raised the question Do Interrelations on the Western Hemisphere Menace the Peace? Analyses of the Machinery and Achievements of the League of Nations were given by Manley O. Hudson, Raymond Fosdick, Grace Abbott and The Honorable George W. Wickersham, while Professor Herbert Feis told of the International Labor Office. The Need For Codification of International Law was set forth by Professor J. W. Garner; Arbitration Treaties by David Hunter Miller; Competition in Armament by James G. McDonald; Comparative Study of Text Books by Professor Donald Taft. Under the title The Press and Peace, Bruce Bliven left little doubt in the minds of his hearers that "the press can help to cause war and does"; also that "the press could help to end war and doesn't."

There were many other notable addresses, perhaps the most notable that of Judge Florence Allen. The names on the program of Major-General John F. O'Ryan, Brigadier General Lord Thomson and General Henry T. Allen, all of whose speeches testified to the possibility of a warless world, are proof that even among seasoned warriors the old fatalism about war is disappearing.

The lively open forum on Causes of War, with Julia C. Lathrop presiding, was a memorable session. Some members of the Program Committee had anxiously questioned how it would "go." Five minutes after the gavel fell, it became evident that the only momentum needed was Miss Lathrop's genius for bringing out the best in every mind her own mind meets. Delegates from every group sprang up eager to question and to contribute. War to these women is a condition, not a theory, not a sentiment. They talked straight, meeting the issues squarely, and when for lack of knowledge they could not come to grips with a given prob-

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lem, their determination for further study was made clear. A commissioner of the United States Government who attended this forum said later to one of his colleagues: "I never heard better talks, on any subject, made by women—or by anybody!"

An encouraging feature of the conference was the youth of some of the delegates, particularly in the Y. W. C. A. group. Another surprise was the youthful appearance of many of the experts. The older women greeted with a joyous and infectious enthusiasm these men and women of a younger generation who are making such good use of their brains and their social heritage. While not in the least minimizing the difficulties in the way, all the experts held the hope, in several instances the belief, that the scientific approach to the study of the causes of war and the scientific application of the result of that study will eventually remold the human mind until the peoples of the civilized nations will demand that the present organization of the world for war shall give way to world organization for peace. With them, too, the old fatalism has gone.

The findings are already available in pamphlet form.* They deserve sympathetic and careful study. The committee which drew up the report on the Causes of War is careful to state that its findings "make no pretense of being an exhaustive or scientific study of the question, but is an attempt to present such facts as are at its command . . . as developed by the different speakers at this conference and as brought out in discussion from the floor." A simple classification is then given.

The findings on Cures of War is naturally much longer. It is possible here only to touch on the section concerning the Relation of the Conference to Local and Individual Responsibilities where the findings recommend that three projects should be pushed immediately or during the year.

1. Entrance of the United States into the World Court.
2. The participation of the United States in further disarmament conferences and in particular that provided for by the Protocol of Geneva.
3. Work for the appointment of an Under Secretary for Peace in the Department of State.

The findings also favor:

1. Work for the outlawry of war, with the understanding that this involves two definite steps.
   (a) The enactment of an international law declaring that war is a crime, in which an aggressor nation should be dealt with as a criminal.
   (b) The use of international machinery through which such a law can become operative among all nations. This involves and actually compels a permanent world organization which shall be continuously operative.

A copy of a resolution urging prompt action by the United States Senate for adherence of the United States to the Permanent Court of International Justice was presented by the chairman to President Coolidge when he received the delegates on the last day of the conference. The President took this occasion to make a searching statement on the responsibility of this country to help maintain the peace of the world.

But more important than the findings was the conference itself, and the spirit with which women of the greatest influence in their organizations and representing organizations of the greatest influence in their communities came together. While not sacrificing the identity of their individual groups they worked to find some common ground which might bring them to agreement upon common support of practical measures for increasing international good will.

Before adjournment the conference appointed a Continuing Committee composed of the presidents of the nine cooperating organizations and the chairmen of the committees or departments which deal with international matters in each of these organizations.

The cooperating organizations have a total membership of 5,000,000. It is conceivable that a conference with this backing may become a crusade. ESTHER G. OGDEN

* *Upon application to Miss Josephine Schain, secretary of the conference, 1010 Grand Central Terminal Building, New York City.*

War has failed to end War: Diplomacy has failed to end War: Only ties of the Spirit infallibly unite Therefore we pray for the Divine Alliance of Nations

A Prayer for the Spiritual Union of Mankind

Eternal God, Father of All Souls: Grant unto us such a clear vision of the sin of War, that we may earnestly seek that co-operation between Nations which alone can make War impossible. As man by his inventions has made the whole world into one neighborhood, Grant that he may, by his co-operations, make the whole world into one brotherhood. Help us to break down all race prejudice, stay the greed of those who profit by War, and the ambitions of those who seek an Imperialistic Conquest, drenched in blood. Guide all Statesmen to seek a just basis for International action in the interests of Peace. Arouse in the whole body of the people an adventurous willingness, As they sacrificed greatly for War, so, also, for International Good-will, To dare bravely, think wisely, decide resolutely, and to achieve triumphantly. AMEN

Harry Emerson Fosdick

A Prayer for Peace, circulated by the League of Nations Non-Partisan Association. Copies may be obtained from the Association at 6 East Thirty-ninth Street, New York

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The Common Welfare

TWO facts emerge from the sweeping headlines as to the status of the child labor amendment. The first is that the amendment has met a severe and not altogether expected check; that more than a quarter of the states have taken partial or complete action adverse to it; that rejections have come so much more rapidly than ratifications that the drift of the moment is obviously against the amendment. The other fact is that the amendment has by no means been defeated; that there is both constitutional warrant and actual precedent for a state legislature's reversing itself and voting to ratify an amendment once rejected; and that the fight goes on.

On January 31 three states had voted to ratify—Arkansas, Arizona, California—and one house of the legislature had voted in favor of ratification in Montana and New Mexico. On the other hand Georgia, Kansas, North Carolina, Oklahoma, South Carolina and Texas had voted to reject the amendment; one house had taken similar action in Delaware, Louisiana, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota; Washington had voted not to submit the matter to a referendum; Wyoming had voted in the House to postpone consideration; and an advisory referendum in Massachusetts had registered a large popular majority against ratification. Similar referendums were being suggested in New York and New Jersey. The situation stood thus:

Complete ratification	3 states
One house voted to ratify	2 "
Complete rejection	6 "
One house voted to reject	5 "
Action postponed	2 "
Adverse referendum	1 state

From unexpected corners comes evidence to support Mr. Chenery's observation in the January Graphic that the trumped-up red menace is being worked for all it is worth. New York social workers, for example, who arranged a child labor debate for the annual meeting of the Monday Club were favored by speakers for the opposition with a rehash of the preposterous propaganda which was employed in Massachusetts. Yet it would be short sighted as well as unfair to maintain that this illiterate sort of fear, added to the usual opposition of organized manufacturers, accounted completely for the vigor and temporary success of the opposition. The New York Herald-Tribune put its finger on another range of opposition in a recent editorial:

> It is a reaction which appears to have very little to do either with child labor or the real meaning and effect of the proposed amendment. Barring the professionals, the bitterest opponents of the measure have apparently neglected to study either subject; they have merely poured out an accumulated exasperation with high taxes, Congressional errors, and especially with the Eighteenth Amendment upon a proposal which appears superficially to be part of the tendency they deplore.

There still remains a minority group in that opposition—men and women whose disinterested attachment to good government and orderly processes of social betterment is unquestioned, but whose habit of thought leads them to distrust the amendment as tending to throw out of balance the delicate adjustment of federal and state functions in particular and of law and public opinion in general. To that group Dr. Adler especially addresses himself in the article which opens this issue. Friends of the amendment have a double task: to join issue squarely with those who honestly and intelligently oppose them, and to sweep away by every available means of education the fog of superstitious panic which darkens good counsel for so many of the majority.

WHEN the United States Supreme Court declared the District of Columbia minimum wage law unconstitutional, it was foreseen that similar laws in the states would be brought under fire. The attack is in full swing. On August 27, a federal circuit court issued a preliminary injunction restraining the Wisconsin Industrial Commission from enforcing the state's minimum wage law against the Folding Furniture Works. On October 7, a case was brought before the California Supreme Court to test the constitutionality of the California minimum wage law.

The character of the plaintiffs in these two cases raises an interesting question as to the quality of the opposition to minimum wage legislation for the protection of women and minors. The test case in California was brought in the name of Helen Gainer whose identity was for months shrouded in mystery. It was known that she had been employed as a typist by a detective agency, it was inferred that a woman who was anxious for employment at five or six dollars a week was in no position to bear the expenses of such a suit; but immediately after the complaint had been filed in her name she disappeared like a phantom. The state Supreme Court promised to hand down a decision on January 7; but four days in advance of that date Helen Gainer suddenly reappeared in a new role. She presented a petition to the court praying for the dismissal of her suit.

> I became involved in this case against the Industrial Welfare Commission unwittingly [she is quoted as saying] and without realizing that I was being made the plaintiff in a case contesting the constitutionality of the minimum wage law of California, and threatening the welfare of the women wage earners of the state. I do not care to occupy that position, for I too am obliged to earn a livelihood and I am in sympathy with all women who do so. . . . Now that I fully understand the purport of the litigation, I would rather not play the role of plaintiff of a measure which I now understand has been of great benefit to the women workers of California.

The case was dismissed by the state Supreme Court on January 25.

The plaintiff in Wisconsin can hardly be so innocent a victim of back stage manipulation as Helen Gainer, but there too it is obvious that the attack is being directed by generals carefully screened back of the front line. Upon investigation it appears that for months before they secured the preliminary injunction against the Wisconsin Industrial Commission the Folding Furniture Works employed no adult women at all. Certainly the commission had no know-

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ledge that they were employing women at sub-legal rates. After the complaint was filed a woman deputy of the commission discovered from an examination of their payrolls that during the entire preceding year they had employed no adult women and that the one minor girl whom they had employed had been paid a legal wage. The numerous women who, according to the complaint, were clamoring for the opportunity to work for less than the minimum set by the commission, were not produced in the flesh; they remained invisible and unchristened. It would occasion local observers no great surprise if the Folding Furnishing Works should emulate Helen Gainer's example and slip the manipulators' puppet strings.

THAT Helen Gainer, in spite of her involvement in entangling alliances, should have reappeared as a supporter of the California minimum wage law is more significant than the fact that she was used as a tool in the first instance. It shows how profoundly public opinion has shifted on this major social issue. It is not likely that Helen Gainer would have taken steps to have her suit dismissed if prevailing public sentiment in California had not encouraged and sustained her; especially such sentiment among working women themselves. When the California minimum wage law was passed in 1913, public sentiment was almost as greatly divided on the principle it embodied as it is at present over the proposed federal child labor amendment. When in 1914 an amendment to the state constitution designed to insure the constitutionality of the minimum wage law within the state was submitted to the voters, it carried by a majority of only 84,000 votes.

The canning industry is the largest employer of women in California. In 1913 the opposition to minimum wage legislation among canners was strong. Writing to Amy Maher of the Ohio Council on Women in Industry early in 1924, the president of the Canners' League of California says:

> I do not believe you could find a reputable canner or other large employer of women who would ask to have the law repealed. . . . At the time the California minimum wage law was passed more or less opposition to this law was manifested by the canners as well as other groups of employers of women and minors.

A member of the Minimum Wage Committee of the California Retail Dry Goods Association writes that although he had grave doubts of the effects that would follow the enactment of the law, ten years of experience have made him an unqualified supporter of the measure as a boon, not only to women, but also to business. With few exceptions, such as the organization which behind the screen of Helen Gainer brought suit to invalidate the law, the sentiment in its favor is almost as strong among employers' organizations as among trade unions and organizations of women, barring the National Woman's Party and the equal rights advocates.

The bearing of this development of public opinion upon the future of minimum wage legislation may prove to be decisive. The basis of the Supreme Court's decision in the District of Columbia case was the Fourteenth Amendment and in numerous cases the court has made it clear that its interpretation of *due process* is guided by the environment surrounding specific legislation and by differences due to local variations in the different states. We in New York remember the language of the New York Court of Appeals in the case of the People v. Schweinler Press where the court said:

> There is no reason why we should be reluctant to give effect to new and additional knowledge upon such a subject as this (night work of women) even if it did lead us to take a different view of such a vastly important question as that of public health and disease than formerly prevailed.

Minimum wage legislation, like legislation regulating night work for women, is essentially health legislation and there is every reason to believe that the experience of states like California and Wisconsin provides new and additional knowledge of which the courts will take cognizance. If the new knowledge provided by years of experience in these states should lead the state courts to affirm the constitutionality of their minimum wage laws, it would not be unreasonable to anticipate similar action by the United States Supreme Court with respect to the constitutionality of these statutes.

WE SHOULD like, sometimes, to put the shoe on the other foot. Why should the feeble-minded always be in the care of politicians? Why not reverse the relationship now and then? It might work just as well. Less foresight, less ability to reason from experience, less social consciousness could hardly be shown by the inmates of the Indiana School for Feeble-Minded Youth than by the new governor of Indiana in forcing the resignation—to make room for his own brother—of Dr. Byron E. Biggs from the superintendency of that school at Fort Wayne.

Dr. Biggs is known as one of the ablest superintendents of such institutions in the country. His fifteen years experience as a psychiatrist include a long period of training as assistant to Dr. Harley A. Haynes at the famous Michigan School for the Feebleminded at Lapeer; a considerable amount of work with Dr. Walter E. Fernald, that brilliant pioneer whose long service to Massachusetts has but recently ended with his death; and service as first superintendent of the Mississippi School for the Feebleminded. His successor was once a county farm agent and has been for several years in charge of the farm maintained by the Indiana institution.

Such is progress. Thirty years ago Alexander Johnson, in those early adventuring days of his as superintendent of this same school, which he has described for Survey readers (Dec. 1, 1922, Jan. 1, 1923), established the school farm as part of his broad-gage program for putting what had previously been a feebly managed institution on a sane and strong footing. The excuse now made that the school needs a "business" man at its head is, in all conscience, a sorry justification for jeopardizing all the progress slowly won through a generation of effort.

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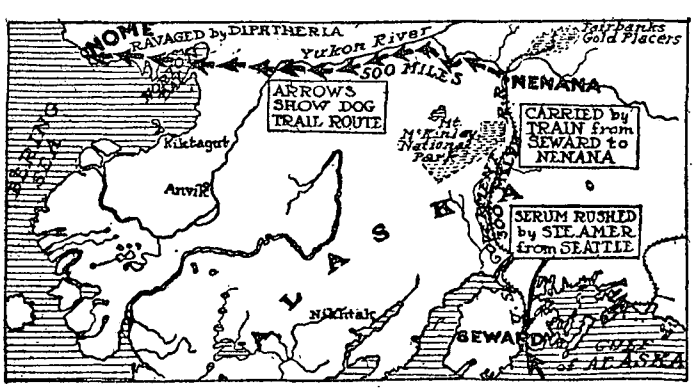
The late governor of Kansas, whose high-handed manipulation of the state university has been happily undone by his successor, tried to force the appointment of a police matron as dean of women there. He and the new chief magistrate of Indiana should know each other better.

WHILE the dog teams were racing across the frozen plains of Alaska carrying antitoxin to Nome the imagination of thousands of newspaper readers quickened as they pictured the scene—the desolate wastes of snows, the "mild" weather ranging from zero to 20 below, the relays of huskies straining at their harness, the veteran musher running behind to urge them on, while his relief, forewarned by telegraph waited in the harness at the trail. Dogs and drivers whose names are famous through the Yukon country cut the usual fifteen days from Nenana to a little more than five as Balto, hero of many sweepstakes, led the last relay of half-wolf malamutes into Nome through a blizzard which blinded his master.

If this is a real epidemic and follows the usual course of such disasters in remote communities, it is quite possible that only the telegraph and the help it is bringing will have saved Nome from such a pestilence as those which decimated the villages of Europe in the Middle Ages. Could an aeroplane have been assembled and a pilot found to make the four or five hours' flight each day's delay avoided might have meant the sparing of life.

One ponders on the criminal carelessness that let winter shut down with no provision of antitoxin in a stretch of country which harbors 11,000 souls. It is reassuring to reflect that here in the states one could probably buy antitoxin at the drugstore just around the corner, or half-an-hour away by Ford; or, with greater foresight, could avoid the necessity of ever requiring it by the simple procedure of the Schick test and the toxin-antitoxin injections for the susceptible. There are reaches of ignorance, however, which condemn children to die of diphtheria in the most highly favored parts of the country as surely as in the isolation of snowbound Alaska. Almost exactly thirty years ago, antitoxin was put into the hands of the medical profession. Within five years the mortality from the disease had been halved; in the next quarter century it was reduced to less than one-eighth its former toll. It has become almost axiomatic that antitoxin given in sufficient amounts early in the course of the disease will ensure the recovery of persons suffering from diphtheria. There are few places in the country where it cannot be obtained free from the public health authorities. Yet in 1923 diphtheria caused the deaths of nearly 12,000 persons in the registration area.



Courtesy of the New York World

A recent issue of the bulletin of the Department of Health of New York City tells the stories of some of these victims—children who were allowed to suffer with a sore throat for several days before a physician was called, or whose care was entrusted to "doctors who did not believe in drugs," till, too late, their desperate condition forced recourse to the proved method. Every week such children are carried into Willard Parker hospital in this city, dying; when everything else has failed, the parents send for an ambulance, and the ambulance surgeon gives the antitoxin on the way, to lose no precious moment, though a glance has told him that nothing can help. Sometimes the blame is to be laid to the carelessness or incompetence of a physician, but more frequently the ignorance, the procrastination, or the superstition of the parents is at fault. Bridgeport, Conn., studying its diphtheria records, found that every death in a whole year was chargeable to the parents' delay in calling a physician. While children continue to die of diphtheria with the resources of almost infallible prevention and cure at hand, we cannot lean back and enjoy complacent thrills in reading that desperate story of Nome.

THE Universalist Leader of Boston gives the gist of a paper read by the Rev. John Ratcliff at a recent ministers' meeting. He "discussed frankly the actual leadership of the Universalist Church in various fields," and asked what place its ministers and laymen are taking in the progressive intellectual and moral movements of the day. Universalists, he pointed out, were accustomed to saying that they were pioneers—and indeed in the history of a score of American communities, the communal outlook of the Universalists and their high concern for the quick as well as the dead, have made them count quite out of proportion to their numbers in the civic and social movements of the last fifty years. Mr. Ratcliff, however, was inclined to question whether his fellow churchmen were keeping the tradition fresh and gave various comparative statistics in point. For example, "I have made a study," he said, "of the Hibbert Journal, the International Journal of Ethics, The Survey, the American Journal of Sociology, and Religious Education—representative journals in several distinct fields, but all carrying articles on the church and religion. Methodists contributed 27 per cent of the articles, Congregationalists 25 per cent, Baptists 14.5 per cent, Presbyterians 11.4 per cent, Unitarians 5.5 per cent, Catholics 2.6 per cent, Jewish 1.3 per cent, and Universalists seven-elevenths of one per cent."

The showing is challenging; but one pinch of salt needed is to weight these percentages with the strength of the different church followings. The Congregationalists are a small denomination compared with the Methodists, for example, and if rated relatively to their numbers, would dislodge the latter from first place on the list. The standing of the Universalists would be lifted similarly. Other factors enter in, as in the Jewish and Catholic tallies.

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HEALTH

Getting Well

SICKNESS is expensive anyway you figure it, both to the family on whom it falls and to the community in which they live. Yet in the past twenty years, both families and communities have been educated in some degree to realize that the cheapest way out of the mishap, once it occurs, is to invest money at once in the best medical treatment at home or in hospitals. Now that that idea seems almost well enough established to stand by itself, it has been possible to turn the energies of health workers to the fringes of the problem of actual sickness—to the measures whereby it might have been avoided, and to the after-care which prevents recurrence or relapse.

Two of the specific phases of convalescence have recently been discussed in some detail in The Survey. [Convalescence from heart disease in the Heart issue of November 1, 1924, and after-care of tuberculosis in the issue of February 1, 1925.] The question, however, runs like a cross-section through the whole lists of illnesses and accidents. A hospital may take a man who is desperately ill with appendicitis, or pneumonia, or typhoid fever, and treat him until the specific infection which caused the disease no longer is present. But the chances are that when he is thus cured specifically he still is white and weak and totally unfitted to go back to work. Perhaps he can stay on at the hospital until he is really fit; perhaps he can rest at home; if he belongs to the favored classes he may go South or West or to the mountains, as the case and season may be; but for many patients treated in our hospitals no one of these solutions is open.

Hospital care is terribly expensive and an overwhelming proportion of the people who receive it can pay only part or none of the cost. The United Hospital Fund of New York City estimates that in that city at any moment one person in fifty is sick enough to require hospital or medical care. But only about one in four of the 200,000 patients who were cared for last year in the United Hospitals could afford to meet the full cost of the hospital treatment. One-fourth were wholly dependent on public philanthropy to see them through their illness; they could pay nothing at all; and about half could pay only in part.

While so large a burden of the expense of acute illness must be met by philanthropy, or by family budgets which are fairly cracking under the strain, there is every incentive to find some cheaper place than the hospital for that convalescent period, on which, indeed, the ultimate success of the treatment may depend. And while in so many of our large cities, homes are overcrowded, and home conditions often confused and chaotic in the strain under which alien nationalities are adjusting themselves to wholly unaccustomed ways of living in a strange land, for many convalescents the only solution is institutional care.

On one side the convalescent homes touch the field of fresh air camps and vacation houses; on the other, sanatoria and hospitals for the handicapped and chronically ill. In the usual meaning of the term, they are institutions which take ambulant patients on medical diagnosis, for a short recuperative period of rest and upbuilding which will return them to a normal or fairly normal life. For obvious reasons they usually are located in the country. The patients whom they receive may be recovering from a past serious illness, or they may be "preventive convalescents"—that is, they may need rest and the other simple prescriptions of the convalescent home to enable them to avoid an impending breakdown. On the basis of this classification, the Sturgis Research Fund of the Burke Foundation has listed 8,400 convalescent beds in the United States, while institutions not reporting probably have enough to bring the present total to 10,000 for the United States. New York City has about 4,000 beds, or nearly half of those known to exist, in homes scattered about in in New York, New Jersey, Connecticut and even Massachusetts, the furthest nearly 150 miles from the city. Dr. Frederic Brush estimated in the Cleveland survey of health and hospitals that a community should provide convalescent facilities for 10 per cent of the number of hospital bed patients plus 2 per cent of the patients in clincs and dispensaries.

Convalescence, which thus is being recognized as one of the major public health problems, is still without as definite standards and organizations as have been evolved in some others of the health fields. A convalescent home may be administered by a hospital, by a social agency, or by an independent board of its own; it may be limited to some specific field, such as cardiacs, or the tuberculous, or surgical cases; or to special age groups. It may be open all year round, or only through the summer months. It may be free to patients or it may charge a nominal fee to those who can pay, or it may take only those who can meet the major part of the cost of their care. All these varieties and more besides are included in the directory prepared by the Sturgis Research Fund of the Burke Foundation.

THE Burke Foundation itself, opened in 1915, is probably the outstanding example of convalescent institution in the United States. It has three hundred beds, all of which, until recently, have been free; a small section now is devoted to patients who can pay. It takes girls and women from ten years and upward, and boys from fifteen. They come through the hospitals and dispensaries and social agencies, churches, physicians, employers and by direct application from within the county, and are studied and accepted or declined at the Admission Bureau, which has its office in New York City, and then driven to the home on certain specified days each week in the large motor busses of the foundation. Their length of stay depends upon individual needs and progress; it averages about three weeks, though some of the patients with more serious conditions, cardiac and the like, may stay on for several months. These latter usually progress to the point at which they are able to

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do paid work for several hours a day about the institution, helping in its kitchen, gardens, and so on, and thus gradually work their way back to readiness for a job outside.

Only those patients are accepted at the Burke Foundation who can profit by a frankly institutional and standardized régime. They must be able to eat the regular food provided for all patients with only such slight modification as can be made by their own choice from it; they must be able at least to hobble about on crutches; and after a first few days for rest and adjustment they are expected to put in an hour each day, aside from certain cottage duties, in work for the institution.

For the weakest, or those with some special disability, such as the patients with bad hearts, there are sitting occupations—making toys, repairing the clothing and shoes of patients, or some part of the equipment of the building, such as the hammocks or the clubs for the special "short golf" course on the grounds, or sewing or mending or preparing vegetables or repairing the books in the library. Those able to carry on heavier work do part of the gardening, under supervision, or other light tasks outdoors or in; and gradually they work up to such real exercise as snow shoveling, or caring for the trees on the grounds. The work period is from 10.30 till 11.30; it is preceded by breakfast and a period for recreation indoors or out; and followed by dinner, a rest hour, and an afternoon devoted to recreation or to light paid occupation until supper at five, followed by an evening of reading, writing letters, dancing or other entertainment, and lights out at nine. Proceeds from the sale of articles made by the patients are devoted to the Sturgis Research Fund of the Burke Foundation which has made possible studies of various technical aspects of convalescence reported in many publications.

ON this simple régime patients from the most diverse social classes and with physical and mental ailments of most diverse kinds have regained their courage and physical strength. For patients who are chosen properly, the effect of group work and play is highly stimulating; there are games, dances, golf, coasting, skiing, ballplay, to make them forget their aches and pains and complaints and join in the common fun. Participation in these and in the required hour of work for the common good is considered a test of the patient's progress toward a normal state of mind and body which will enable him to get back to his or her regular job of living. Some patients, of course, do not do well on such a régime, and they must be returned to their families or to the institutions from which they were sent, perhaps for further medical diagnosis and treatment or for some other plan of cure, or for reference to a home for the chronically ill if they are found not able to win back at least a measure of normal health.

In the study made by the New York Academy of Medicine, it was found that convalescent homes of this type, which provided for medical and nursing supervision, and for a program chiefly of rest, fresh air, good food, and therapeutic work and play, cost only about a third as much as hospitals. Where they are available they make it possible for a hospital to discharge sooner the considerable group of patients whose homes are not proper places for convalescence and so ensure a real economy to the community. For patients whose homes can be made suitable for the convalescent period, the costs can be cut again; the expense of systematic supervision which will see that the home conditions are arranged properly and that there is a correct diet, and will connect the patient with his family physician or the proper dispensary and clinic facilities, can be carried out at about a third the cost of institutional treatment, according to the estimate of Dr. Frederic Brush. He defines this supervision as "essentially just standard social service with additions of more time, firmer control, a few supplies, and at times surgical dressings, fuller cooperation of various agencies and means, and surer follow through dispensary, etc., into occupation." The investment in weeks of hospital care, followed by a period of supervised convalescence, may be lost wholly or in part if the patient spends two weeks in the desperately hard and fatiguing task of job-hunting when he gets ready to start work again.

Much better, of course, than this whole complicated and costly business of readjustment, is the early detection of disease symptoms which will make it possible to ward off a breakdown. Dr. Brush quotes estimates that one quarter of the adult working population is in a condition of substandard health sufficient to warrant recuperative rest. To find these men and women before they became actually ill, and enable them to undergo a preventive convalescence, is a public health job in the hands of individuals themselves, of physicians, social workers, employers, and insurance and periodic examiners. To these candidates for convalescent care must be added the handicapped groups—the cripples, some neuropsychiatric patients, the cardiacs and the like—who need such periods of rest and rebuilding in order to hold even. With the surer recognition and detection of these groups, with the inclusion of the vast numbers of mental patients who are just beginning to be considered as suitable for this type of care, convalescence assumes a major position in the public health program of any intelligent community and nation.

It is usual to find that from 5 to 10 per cent of the patients in hospitals for the treatment of acute diseases belong properly in an institution for chronic patients or a convalescent home. By providing the comparatively inexpensive facilities for the proper care of these two types of patients many communities can postpone for a considerable time the building of costly hospitals which seem necessary, at casual glance, to meet a present need, and can ensure the most effective and lasting results from the use of hospital facilities already in existence.

M. R.

Gambling on Margins

IT WAS but natural that a chorus of joy and self-satisfaction should arise from cheerful, confident, congregations of experts at Lausanne such as the international gathering who tell the world that tuberculosis is on the run before the happy hordes of health workers.

Granted that the peak of the great epidemic of tuberculosis which we now see waning was somewhere in the prehistoric past, when a vital statistic was as unknown as a stethoscope, and that the swift decline we have been riding on began well before there was a health department, a chest clinic, or even a Koch to show us Mister Tubercle Bacillus in his brilliant scarlet dress all tidily presented under the oil immersion lens:

Granted that with rising wages, shorter hours, more

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conscience in employer and more power in employes, there has been in some great lands a victory over consumption undreamed of by our most optimistic grandfathers, and that with the great Semitic invasion of New York, together with a particularly consistent and intelligent search for and treatment of tuberculosis that city death rate from this disease has fallen 65 per cent since 1900:

What then of the acute epidemic out-breaks of the disease during and after the war in Europe and even since 1922 in Germany? How can we congratulate ourselves upon a step ahead in health understanding when almost overnight we see the gains of thirty years swept away by the sudden establishment of uncontrollable unsanitary conditions of housing and the almost total inability of a nation of 40,000,000 people to separate sick from well? Is it not true that the margin of safety is much narrower in communities than in individuals, and that a brief interruption in work, wages, crops, may quickly prove the undoing of much of our gains?

The meeting of the International Union against Tuberculosis at Lausanne last summer lost one of the best opportunities ever preesented for exhibiting the contrasting pictures of England and the United States with Germany before and since the war. All the fireworks were in celebration of the successes and no torches were burned to compel attention to the sudden changes which have taken place with almost the precision of a scientific experiment as a mass demonstration of disease.

While in England and the United States the war set back but little the progressive decline in the tuberculosis death rate, in Germany where the rate had fallen from 219 in 1899 to 142 per 100,000 in 1914, 1919 saw again a rate of 212. Hardly had the deaths from war and influenza ended when there was repeated in three years a fall in the rate equal to that which had taken 25 years before. Between 1914 and 1923 Germany's tuberculosis went through all the stages of sudden exacerbation, arrest at a brief peak of one year and then a tumble again almost to its former lowest level (148 in 1921). Hardly had this quick and favorable picture been painted when financial catastrophe, universal unemployment, housing and food crises and governmental bankruptcy created a situation which in the two years, 1922 and 1923 put the country back again to its tuberculosis level of 1908 and early 1917 (160 per 100,000).

Thus on four occasions within fifteen years we see the mass of highly organized communities of Germany, inescapably related to other countries and continents, touch for a brief period a tuberculosis death rate of 160 per 100,000 in 1908, first on the decline in the midst of prosperity and the full swing of a highly developed centralized bureaucratic sanitary service; next in 1917 on the rise to the sudden heights of a tuberculosis developed in famine and the exhaustion of the industry of war; then in 1919 when the appearance of post-war activities brought earnings and food again within reach of workmen's families, with a falling rate only to rest for a year at a low point and finally in 1923 to reach on a new increase the same level of 1908, 160.

With tuberculosis infection widely prevalent, it takes but relatively little change in the standards of living, and for a short time, to put the active open case of the disease back in the home. Contract the home to a few rooms so that beds must be shared by many; expose the young directly and intimately with infected elders; cut down fuel and clothing until the body is below par from exposure; reduce the quantity and quality of food below the minimum necessary to hold body weight and provide for growth or repair from disease, and at once there occurs a jump in incidence of active disease first among little children, and then in the death rate of adults. Suppose we should find a jump from 41 to 106 in the tuberculosis death rate of our children under 14 years of age, and 3 per cent of our school children with active pulmonary tuberculosis, instead of learning as we are in New York and Philadelphia that a constantly rising per cent of our school children have not even been infected during their pre-school life!

No sociological or statistical evidence presented at Lausanne was so valuable for future education against tuberculosis as the records which the American Friends, the school doctors, the health officers of Germany could have brought to such a meeting had they been invited, while the facts were fresh, and quickly verifiable, to review and confirm the slower history of many decades in the record of ten years in Germany, 1914-1923. There was much in German experience which would have added conviction to the opinions widely held as to the essential relationship between tuberculosis and industry, housing and wages, illuminated by such critical implications of industrial and economic disorder as could have been brought from Germany.

The situation in Germany is notably better than it was a year ago and we may expect a reasonably quick fall to the pre-war status of tuberculosis. There and in our own communities we must look to steadier industrial conditions, good and secure standards of living in wage earners' families, more workmen's savings in bank and life insurance, and a surer knowledge of proper housing and the values of foods, to broaden the margin between health and infection with tuberculosis.

HAVEN EMERSON, M. D.

Three Kinds of "Nerves"

STRANGE as it may appear, the fact that a person's body is diseased is not the reason he seeks a doctor. It is because something in the working of that bodily mechanism has jarred or stopped altogether. Many men are going about their business with dangerously high blood pressure, or with disease of the heart or other vital organs, quite unaware that they require medical aid. On the other hand, thousands of patients consult doctors, and perhaps even more seek charlatans, because of disturbances of functions based upon causes which in reality are trivial and easily remedied and to which other persons pay no attention whatever.

Functional nervous disturbances may be classified in three kinds, each of which requires a different approach for diagnosis and a different management for cure. The first category consists of the functional disturbances due to changes in the structure of the nervous system itself because of injuries, inflammations or growths. To these may be added spontaneous deterioration. These conditions are well described in the text books of neurology and need not engage attention here.

The second category of functional disturbance appears

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when the cause is a disturbance of the medium in which the nervous elements are bathed—the blood and lymph. The disease process is not in the nervous system itself, and causes no alteration of its structure, but hampers its working either through lack of proper nourishment or by the addition of substances which prevent the usual chemical interchanges. Frequent examples are furnished by such cases as typhoid delirium or alcoholism. Other instances less manifest occur when disordered metabolism prevents healthy integration of the more complex nervous processes. This is conspicuous in physical fatigue, in which the efficiency level falls markedly. It is seen in the poorly nourished school child and in the young person whose sleep is insufficient. It also occurs in those who over-eat and during the course of many physical disorders.

Endocrine Disturbances

Less discernible because more inherent in the individual are the disorders of the endocrine system, where one or more of the glands of internal secretion is insufficient or excessive in action and gives rise to disturbances of the working of the nervous system. Too often the cause of these escapes attention.

For instance, a man of forty-five, so neurasthenic that he could not go to his business and sometimes could not bring himself to leave the house, was sent to me, after some months of treatment by a physician who stated that he was an agoraphobiac, that is, afraid of wide places, an obsession usually traceable to psychological sources. The patient was depleted in the failure of his over-stimulated endocrine glands on account of excessive intellectual and emotional stress for a long period. The reason he could not face the open spaces and his business was that the over-activity of his thyroid gland left him too exhausted to deal with them. Proper treatment was given, whereupon rapid recovery ensued. In several instances states of depression, vague fears and decreasing efficiency with lack of initiative were believed to be due to inadequate output of the adrenal glands, for when these were assisted artificially many of the patients improved in a strikingly rapid fashion, although others responded more slowly.

Endocrine disturbances in children are, I believe, much more frequent than is supposed. They rectify themselves through the development of the glands during growth and recovery of balance after puberty, but it is not wise to leave the whole matter to nature, because so many of them can be greatly assisted, to the prevention of much suffering. Improving the health in this physical way also prevents the formation of bad psychological habits, which may afterwards be very difficult to change, even though the physical cause has ceased.

On the other hand, temperaments due to endocrine differences are often looked upon as unhealthy when they are merely peculiar or unusual and quite appropriate for that individual. All of us know the sanguine type with active thyroid, for whom activity is a necessity. Many of us do not sufficiently recognize, however, the hypopituitary type, with an active intelligence, to whom physical exercise is a burden and to whom exercise and cold baths are often prescribed with the effect only of creating discomfort and impairing efficiency. Often unrecognized too, is the hyperpituitary type of aggressive and active bodied person who is disliked because of his rapid mental processes and perhaps over-bearing character. For the patient to understand his own nature in this way is a great help to him, and may enable him to mitigate his functional peculiarities, as regards their effect upon others at least.

When the Cause is Psychological

In the third category of functional nervous disorders is that in which the cause is purely psychological. These cases are the most common. They probably suffer the most, and certainly, they are the most amenable to skillful treatment. At present the neurologist finds the greatest field of usefulness in these cases in making adjustments. In the future perhaps he may be even more useful in the matter of mental hygiene and in the prevention of many of the individual and social grievances from which so many people suffer nowadays.

This kind of functional nervous trouble occurs without changes of structure of the nervous system or alterations of body chemistry. It is due to what may be called dynamic factors, that is to say, alterations of the directing of the energy of the nervous system into avenues which may be called morbid.

Empirically everyone has known for centuries that balance may be disturbed by great passions. The famous experiments of Pavlow were, however, the first successful scientific efforts to measure physical alterations by caused emotions, which the investigator himself controlled by external stimuli. Pavlow found that he could modify the animal's reaction without altering the apparent stimulus. This he did by altering the meaning of the stimulus to the animal, e.g., a whip would excite no fear in one dog which would, in another, cause an immediate stoppage of all digestive secretions because of the fear it aroused. This was simply because the latter dog expected a whipping which customarily followed the sight of the whip, while the former dog attached no such meaning to it. These inevitable and self-controlled responses Pavlow called conditioned reflexes. Psychopathologists made application of these very simple data to the conditions under which some human beings were emotionally disturbed by conditions which did not disturb others.

These and later similar experiments gave simple, clearly objective interpretations which satisfied men engaged in experiments of exact science, and permitted physicians to understand how peculiarities of behavior need not necessarily be referred to alterations of structure or chemistry, but were satisfactorily explained through the simple facts of dynamic psychology. Similar experiments carried out on human beings, beginning with infants, have shown exactly the same "conditionability" as was demonstrated in animals.

An outstanding characteristic of these conditionings is that "all things are not what they seem"; and it is by a study of the patient that the significance of surroundings in determining morbid behavior is to be estimated. Knowledge of this kind of evidence is common property, but its interpretation is not. It often requires considerable analysis, more especially on the part of a physician who has not himself experienced like reactions. As Dejerine used to say "he who is the best psychotherapist is he who has himself been a little neurasthenic." This is not necessarily so nowadays, however; though to have had a diease does add to one's knowledge of it. A better understanding of these conditions, which are known as psychoneuroses, may be afforded by a few examples.

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A man aged thirty was referred to me by another physician because of a nervous breakdown. Superficially and in his own estimation he appeared to be simply agitated, terrorized and quite incapable of conducting the business which brought him to Washington. His face was congested, eyes bloodshot; he trembled violently; indeed the friend whom I first saw doubted his willingness to see me. In spite of this, a single interview sufficed to discover that this abject picture was not caused by physical disease, but was the result of fears. The origin of these were ascertained in part at the time of interview, and during the following days the genesis was penetrated so adequately as to permit the man to return to his Western home, no longer incommoded by the morbid fears which had incapacitated him.

This man's fear had originated during the excitement and horror caused by the bursting of a large dam in the city where he lived. His efforts to reach his home and rescue his mother were impeded by the crowd, whereby an anxious terror was induced. This persisted as a fear of water and storms. Eventually the wind became the most conspicuous feature which aroused fear. Fire would also do this. Recently the phobia was becoming associated with circumstances more and more numerous, and he had become less and less fit for his business, which was of an exciting nature. He had been sent to Florida for a change, and while there he improved. He quickly relapsed, however, upon returning to work. The real meaning of these phobias was fear of death and it was that which had to be dealt with before his peace of mind could be restored. It was very necessary in this case that each step he took should be expressed by him in writing before my review. It was in one of these exercises that he made the significant declaration "Perhaps, I don't amount to much, anyway." He made the further statement "I have concluded that I will be just what I make myself."

So far from having a sense of inferiority this patient felt himself to be a highly superior individual. He was an only child, spoilt, and things had always gone well with him, even in business, where he was protected and almost petted by the heads of the firm. It was not until the sense of humility was aroused that he was able to deal with the groundwork of his fears.

A single woman, aged 31, was an expert counter in the United States Treasury. She suffered for three months with severe pain in the right shoulder and was unable to use her right arm, as motion caused her head to turn sharply to the right with a force she could not control. A physician was consulted. His diagnosis was neuritis, and electricity was prescribed. Relief was temporary. Her condition greatly worried her; she had also another unusual worry. Three months before she had an unpleasant episode with an office associate, over which she brooded. Continuous thought of this enemy unconsciously caused her head to turn to the right in the woman's direction. Her counting only partly occupied her mind as it had almost become mechanical. Thus she could not resist the motor response of her underlying thought, a desire for harmony. Thus a need of head-turning had begun to accompany every use of her right hand by process of psychological association. The pain resulted from action of the muscles antagonistic to the head movement which she consciously tried to avoid.

Though many ailments which seem due to purely physical causes may thus be unmasked as psychoneuroses, it is most important that there be thorough study before such a diagnosis is made to rule out the possibility that the symptoms are due to some alteration of the nervous system or some chemical disturbance.

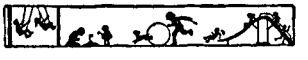
The Danger of Unsound Therapy

Psychological treatment, more especially so-called psychoanalysis, is itself responsible sometimes for the establishment of morbid nervous conditions. Introspection into the insignificant motivation of the past, too often guided by persons without adequate clinical training who erect an artificial mechanism, may give the patient a feeling of severe guilt, which only adds to the feeling of inadequacy of the poor victim. Much unhappiness as well as lowered efficiency arises from such a pervading sense of inadequacy, which interferes with the individual's undertakings, and prevents frankness in social intercourse. For the most part this is due to the diverting of attention from the matters in hand and turning it to the imaginary ones. Crass blundering of psychoanalysts has been the cause of suicides.

A great number of people are victims of this unfortunate tendency to morbid habits of mind, as is attested by the tremendous followings which psychological charlatans attain, especially those who pretend that by a few formulae of optimism they can give everything to their followers. As a matter of fact, they apparently do considerable good to some discouraged individuals, but unfortunately the irrational optimism they engender for a time is soon destroyed by the inevitable shocks of life and the person is often apt to fall into a state much worse than before and come to be a psychasthenic altogether.

Ostrich-like blindness will never solve life's problems. Wilful blindness is no guarantee against accidents. But these people can be reconditioned into a useful and happy existence by a sound psychotherapy as is being attested daily by the practice of scores of earnest and judicial neurologists.

TOM A. WILLIAMS



WHAT TIME do the eleven-year-olds of your town go to bed? How many of them get a substantial breakfast before they start off to school? How many of them drink that standard quart of milk a day, and how many sneak in a cup or two of coffee instead? For these and other similar questions in regard to the fifth grade children in all cities of from 40,000 to 70,000 population in the United States, the American Child Health Association can supply an answer. In fact it has supplied one to their various superintendents of education and directors of health, telling them the median revealed by the written answers of more than 35,000 fifth grade children studied in the course of a survey of child health in these cities, and the record of their own city and of the most favorable city in the group. Median bed-time for the 35,000, for example, is 8.55 p.m; but Chattanooga, Tenn. and Newton, Mass. beat this record by forty minutes and have their median children tucked in by 8.15. For the group the median number of hours of sleep is just short of ten, but in Berkeley, Cal., it is 36 minutes longer. The median number of glasses of milk consumed per day by all children was 1.4 (sadly short of the recommended quart) but Kalamazoo, Mich., East Orange, N. J., and Newton, Mass. reported a median of 2.4 glasses, and East Orange and Newton took honors for the lowest consumption of coffee. The children of Winston-Salem, N. C., seemed, on this showing, to be the cleanest; those of East Orange showed the largest group who had visited the dentist

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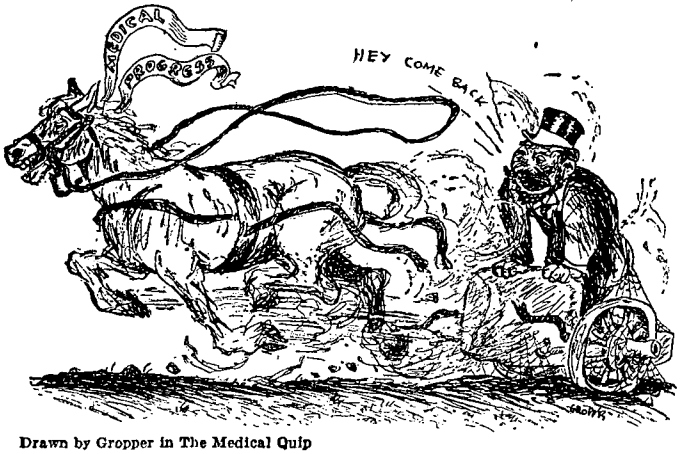
within the year; in New Britain, Conn., a vaccination scar was an all but universal possession; and, apparently, no fifth grade child had gone breakfastless on the day preceding the questionnaire in Sacramento, Cal; Davenport, Ia; Portland, Me; Fitchburg and Salem, Mass; Hamtramck, Mich; Hoboken, N. J; Lakewood, O; or Wichita Falls, Texas. Newton, Mass., occupies 26 of the 49 places in the column in which the most favorable city is specified. In addition to certain initial advantages such as a high general degree of prosperity and a lesser problem of social adjustments than many of the other cities studied, Newton has a notably good program of health education in its schools.

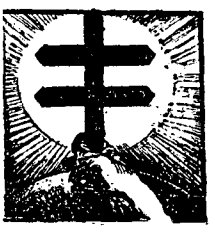
THAT COUNTRY AIR and sunlight are not always a compensation for the better supervision of health usual in cities is demonstrated once more in a study of rural and urban students made at the University of Minnesota and recently reported by Drs. W. P. Shepard and H. S. Diehl in the Journal of the American Medical Association. Communities were defined as farms, villages (from 50 to 1,000 population), towns (1,000 to 5,000 population) and small or large cities. Each of nearly 3,500 entering men students was classified according to the type of community in which he had spent the greatest part of his life. The physical examinations of these students showed that the fewest physical defects occurred among those who came from the large cities (of more than 50,000 population); while the greatest number of physical defects, and the largest number of multiple defects in individuals, were found among the village students. "The nature of the defects most frequent among students from villages," say the authors, "suggest such possible common causes as neglect, congenital anomalies, poor development, frequent exposure to infection, poor hygiene and lack of school health supervision. . . . The fact that, in spite of the disadvantages of urban life, students from large cities are lowest in physical defects speaks well for the standards of living and the present-day health practices of our cities."

WHILE residents of the New England and Middle Atlantic states can congratulate themselves that their homes lie outside the goiter belt that sweeps across the center of the country (see The Survey, June 1, 1924) a recent study of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company finds that they have another geographical specialty—pneumonia. The states which register a high mortality from this disease come from these two groups, to which are added a few scattering exceptions, Delaware and Maryland, Michigan and Colorado. Pennsylvania, for example, has a rate of 100 deaths from pneumonia per 100,000 of population, as compared to an average somewhere around 50 for most of the southern and central states, and a low point in Idaho of 8.9 in 1923, the year studied. As a rule the death-rate from pneumonia is much higher in the cities than in rural districts; ordinarily it is not correlated with the tuberculosis rate of a community, as several of the states with a heavy loss from tuberculosis report very little pneumonia. While industrial conditions (coal mining and steel manufacture in Pennsylvania, for example), and variations in grouping by age and nationality probably have important bearing on the matter, the factor which seems most often to accompany a high pneumonia rate is the *combination* of severe cold with a high humidity. High humidity alone cannot be inculpated, as witness the clear records of such states as the Virginias, the Carolinas, Florida and Georgia; nor can severe cold with little humidity, demonstrated by the favorable experiences of the western provinces of Canada. Among the cities with a particularly high record of mortality from pneumonia are Pittsburgh and Philadelphia, Pa; New York City, Troy, Middletown, Ithaca, and Cortland, N. Y; Camden, Orange, Hoboken, and Jersey City, N. J; Baltimore, Md; and Boston, Cambridge, Lowell, and New Bedford, Mass.



Drawn by Gropper in The Medical Quip

A medical view of the small fraction of their profession who let scientific advance outrun them



WHETHER OR NOT the new "gold cure" for tuberculosis can substantiate the hopes which the preliminary reports seem to justify, (see The Survey, February 1, 1925) there is still room for the elimination of a vast burden of public and private dependency by the steady lowering of the death rate from that disease, such as has been going on for the past quarter century. In the short space of five years in the history of the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor (New York City) which keeps detailed statistics of its family records, the number of families with a history of tuberculosis has fallen from 16.3 per cent to 11.5 of the total number of families on its books. The proportion of relief allotted to the tuberculous families has remained just about constant, at a trifle more than a third of the relief budget, which is to say that it has become possible to give more adequate care to each family. But tuberculosis still claims that third of all relief expended by this organization. The Third Annual Report of the Mothers' Allowances Commission of Ontario, Canada, brings the experience of that province. Tuberculosis characteristically attacks young adults and so bulks large in the history of families of young children rendered dependent on public funds by reason of the death or illness of the parents. In the year ending November 1, 1923, Ontario spent $214,000 for allowances for children whose parents had died of tuberculosis or were totally and permanently incapacitated by it. This was 13 per cent of the total amount of allowances paid during that year. The report concludes, "If the money expended on the widow had been applied to combatting tuberculosis the number of widows might be less."

APPARENTLY education of the medical profession and the laity is becoming effective in helping to combat cancer, that disease so little susceptible of control except by the education of individuals. A recent report of the Pennsylvania Cancer Commission, abstracted in the Campaign Notes of the American Society for the Control of Cancer, compares the results of surveys of the treatment of the disease in 1910 and 1923. Pennsylvania physicians whose work was covered by this study have learned the necessity of prompt treatment, so that 70 per cent of the delay in treatment found in the first survey had been obviated in the second group of cases, while there was a similarly striking decrease in the delay of the patients in consulting a physician after noticing a suspicious symptom. Most of the delay chargeable to the physicians resulted from the ignorance or carelessness of about 10 per cent of the medical group who apparently had not kept abreast of scientific advance in their own profession.

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SOCIAL PRACTICE

A Social-Working State University

WHY social work in a rural state? Why does the State University of Iowa help in developing and standardizing social work throughout the state? Social work suggests crowded tenements, newly arrived immigrants, the noise and confusion of city streets. The peace and plenty of the country are a far cry from this.

Peace and plenty? Step for a moment into the unpainted, unbeautiful shack of the Brown family. It lies near the tracks and near the "pickers' sheds" of a large, widely advertised firm of meat packers. Samuel, aged eight, is at home, though the hour is ten in the morning of a school day. Samuel looks frightened but braces himself for the explanation about his absence from school. "Ma is picking chickens at fifteen cents per hour. Pa is looking for a job. He had another 'spell' and got laid off." A weary cry comes from a dilapidated baby-cab close to the stove. Samuel bounces the buggy as he explains that his baby sister has had pneumonia twice during the winter. The doctor said to keep her warm so he has moved her buggy as close to the stove as he can get it. This explanation is difficult for Samuel has a speech defect that makes talking to strangers a real undertaking. The breakfast table with the leavings not cleared away furnishes intermittent refreshment for Samuel and his sick sister.

This picture belongs to the city? Oh, but it is a photograph of family life in a town of five thousand in the middle west. Furthermore it is only one of ninety-nine others that the same county harbors. If the thinking people of that county had stepped inside that door, and the other ninety-nine doors, with one accord they would direct more of their thoughts to social problems. But they do not enter there. They whirl by in their automobiles, glad to be past the unsightly, ill-smelling part of their community which they believe represents industrial pursuits only.

Again, stop for the moment in the home of Mrs. Johnson. Everyone who knows her vouches for the fact that she is "a fine mother," yet Martha, her oldest and dearest, just turned seventeen, went through a forced marriage ceremony ten days ago. She has left the flock now and gone to live with "his people" with yearning in her heart for the modest home of her mother, her head bowed with shame before the searching eyes of the strangers who opened their doors reluctantly to receive her. Her "man" is generally conceded not much account. He is not yet twenty-one. Already his work habits are slovenly. His school record was poor. There seems some question about his mental responsibility. Mrs. Johnson's home is clean, but confusion reigns. The three little children are left to keep house while their mother scrubs other people's homes. They get their own meals, and the school nurse reports them all more than 10 per cent below weight. They are not making satisfactory progress in school. Two are repeaters. The oldest now at home is becoming difficult. The father, a minister, died several years ago. His widow earns fifty dollars a month at scrubbing.

And then there is Bessie Ward, whose mother died, leaving her at eighteen sole protector of a flock of five younger brothers and sisters. The father had died before the mother. Bessie worked in the telephone exchange until she suddenly went blind. At great personal sacrifice the other girls took up a collection and sent the girl to a specialist in a city some distance away. His diagnosis traced the difficulty not to a physical but to a nervous condition. Anxiety must be lifted. Her load was too heavy. A concerned neighbor asked the county supervisors for a monthly allowance of forty dollars so that Bessie could give up work and stay at home to keep house for herself and younger brothers and sisters. But Bessie blind could not keep house, and a younger brother was growing daily more obstreperous.

To help the thinking people of Iowa realize that social problems abound in the state, to help them study the best methods of salvaging and preventing social handicaps and of developing talents to their maximum among even the lowliest citizens, the state university maintains a service unique among seats of learning. The university employs a social worker as a member of the staff of the Extension Division and places her at the service of groups who wish to study their social problems and improve local programs for dealing with them. The group receiving the service of this member of the faculty finances the actual expenses involved exclusive of the item of salary, which is paid by the university.

Obviously social handicaps appear in large numbers and varied character on relief lists. If the handicaps are genuine, they furnish challenging material for study before a way out can be suggested. If the handicaps are assumed in order to get "relief," then the very imposition can be shown up with all its implications. The fostering of the spirit of pauperism by inadequate and unsound methods of relief-giving can be traced clearly in "pauper families" in every county into which the social worker on the University Extension Division staff has yet been called. To help the people of the counties to realize this and to assist them in developing a constructive program based on their local needs is an outstanding objective of this service of the university.

BUT how reveal the needs? In practically every community, however small, a few families are getting irregular help in clothing or food or both from some local organization. This organization has been aroused to meet the need by a school-teacher, a minister, a public-health nurse, a woman's club, or an individual who is a little more alert and active than the other neighbors in seeing distress and trying to remedy it. It is unhappily true that one of the first efforts put forth in behalf of a particular poor

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family is a request for help from the nearest county supervisor. In Iowa there seems to be a widespread feeling that the care of the poor belongs wholly and exclusively to county officials. As in all communities inexperienced in organized social work with families, there is no facing of the issues involved in each situation, no squaring with the future if the present chaotic system continues indefinitely.

The first challenge which the would-be benefactor receives arises from her request for aid from the public funds. The supervisor, who probably knows the habits of the head of the family on whose behalf the request is made, passes severe judgment, tells of having "been stung before by that lazy loafer" and curtly refuses aid: or, if he be of different political tactics, he agrees to "give a little help," smothers his grudge within himself and sends a few groceries. He harbors no intention of repeating the order later. This is his way of meeting a disagreeable situation and of avoiding future oppositon, should he decide to run for office again. He gives the family no second thought unless a second request for aid is brought. These requests are usually more troublesome around the holidays. In summer the number is relatively low.

Some conscientious and bewildered supervisors frankly state their bewilderment with a few pertinent facts. "The man won't work and the children are neglected. What is the best way out for all concerned, including the taxpayers?" There are as many answers as there are interested individuals. But the usual outcome is another inadequate grocery order and perhaps a small order of fuel. It is not surprising to find that under this régime that Iowa met an outdoor relief bill last year of two million dollars while her poor became poorer and this in the face of the fact that she has a higher per capita wealth than any other state!

The interested neighbor, usually a woman, is almost sure to get another appeal from the family that has received help once before through her intermediation. Even if the supervisor responded before, she hesitates to approach him again so soon. The situation seems to be becoming a bit personal. If she has met with rebuff on her first approach to the supervisor, she is almost certain to spare herself a second such disagreeable experience. Instead she turns to a church aid society, a local relief society, a woman's club, or a businessmen's organization. From these groups she usually receives generous response. They give and give gladly. Do not such opportunities supply one of their main reasons for being?

THE Extension Division of the university is constantly supplying speakers to organizations over the state. It is easy to understand the spontaneous response from this neighbor when a speaker challenges the present outgrown, inadequate system of poor relief from the platform, and outlines a substitute plan more fitted to the need. She becomes a disciple on the spot. She is apt to be a woman of some prominence and leisure, and there are several of her in every community. She cites local situations parallel to those mentioned from the platform. Led by her enthusiasm, others take up the cause. Questions are raised. One of the commonest is: "How can we get started?" This evolution of community consciousness has been going on for years. It has its flower suddenly. After this milestone is reached, the rest is easy. Positive objectives must be set up with care to ensure that the values to be worked for are real and not mere mirages.

In a state of ninety-nine counties of which seventy-three have populations under twenty-five thousand the relief list of the county is the most inclusive one. A clearly defined policy has developed in the Extension Division of the University of Iowa with reference to the outdoor relief lists. If the Extension Division can lead a group of people in a given county to see the wisdom of studying the social handicaps of the families who are receiving outdoor relief and to finance that study, a more adequate program of family social work in that county is practically ensured. Such a study, even when it is quickly done, brings out unwelcome truths so clearly that the actively interested groups cannot stand by longer without trying to improve a program obviously so ineffective and so damaging.

The Iowa Plan is not a nostrum suitable to all communities, but it is believed by those in close touch with it to be a step forward toward more effective help for "the poor" in small cities and rural communities. The very marshalling of community pitfalls which its records reveal, make an intelligent attack upon them more possible. The Iowa Plan involves the organization of a group of local people representing the entire county as a local board of directors. The county supervisors are ex-officio members of this board, since they are responsible by statute for the administration of poor relief from public funds, and the board usually includes representatives of the county medical society, board of education, farm bureau and the chamber of commerce. This board employs a trained social worker as executive, and a stenographer; their salaries are met in part by the board and in part by the county. Usually an office in the courthouse can be obtained through the county.

The social worker is responsible to the board for the proper social treatment of those who apply for relief from either public or private funds. Aside from providing for vast improvement in the treatment of the socially handicapped who apply for relief, the Iowa Plan is helpful to courts, schools, public health nurses, private relief organizations and individuals in dealing with the handicapped. It provides the local courts with a trained social worker for all cases involving children or helpless adults. It supplies trained social service to the schools in dealing with problem children. It strengthens a public health program where there is one and helps evolve one where there is none. It insures a reliable information service about institutional care and proper means for using it. It affords to help in filing application properly for state benefits available to certain groups of handicapped people. It provides vocational training for those handicapped for industry.

In one county operating under the Iowa Plan the state insurance commissioner was asked by the local social worker to use his offices in behalf of a certain man whose benefit payments had been held up. The result was the prompt payment of arrears and current benefits by the insurance firm and prompt and entirely satisfactory service to two other local beneficiaries of the same firm in the same county. Finally, the Iowa Plan affords protection to the people of the entire county against the imposture which swells public poor relief expenditures and increases the difficulty of getting adequate help for those in genuine need. In several counties whose experience was reported in a recent bulletin of the university it was found that the first year's work of the social worker caused a reduction of from 7 to 34 per cent in relief budgets which, in the absence of such trained service had been increasing steadily.

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The Iowa State Conference of Social Work has elected the social worker on the University Extension staff its secretary each year for the past six years. This arrangement is mutually helpful. It keeps the conference in constant touch with social work throughout the state at the same time that it adds the sanctions and prestige of the conference to the message of the university's social worker. Furthermore, the university reserves time for this worker to carry on the duties required by such an office. Ordinarily a state conference pays for this service. In Iowa the state university contributes it.

Gradually the need has been recognized by courts and social agencies as such throughout Iowa for a study of the state's laws as they affect children. The need for closer supervision of child-placing and child-caring institutions is outstanding. The adoption law is a gesture. The five counties that are operating under the Iowa Plan do so through a legal loop-hole only. Last year the State Conference of Social Work voiced its conviction of the need of a thorough study of the laws as they affect children in a communication to the governor. Promptly in response Governor Kendall appointed the Iowa Child Welfare Commission to study these laws, compare them with the best on the same subject in other states, and report findings and offer recommendations to the General Assembly at its next session. As secretary of the State Conference of Social Work, the University Extension Division social worker was named consultant to the commission. This appointment welded together the work of the Child Welfare Commission, the State Conference of Social Work and the university's service to the state in the field of social work.

The Fortieth General Assembly in Iowa amended the mothers' pension law, requiring through this amendment a re-investigation of all pension grants and a new court order for each mother before January, 1924. Without renewal of orders pensions were to be automatically cancelled. Realizing the tremendous amount of additional work which this amendment would require of courts and county supervisors, and the chance of suffering if the work was not accomplished before January, the University of Iowa Extension Division undertook a special service to help meet the emergency. It employed temporarily two additional social workers and placed them at the service of judges and county supervisors in making the new investigations required by law. The actual expense of this work was born locally with the exception of the salaried trained workers whom the university contributed. In revealing situations in which pensioned children were suffering from neglect and inadequate homes, and in drawing the court's attention to others whose claims were impositions, this work has had an educational value difficult to overestimate.

Visits to communities in which programs in social work are active is another of the important and fascinating duties of the social worker on the Extension Division staff of the University of Iowa. The advantages of "an outsider" as the source for a recommendation for needed increase in staff, new blood in boards, new projects of the organization, need not be pointed out here. It is not quite so easy for a board to become complacent if reminded occasionally of new victories elsewhere. Nor can it become quite so discouraged when it hears how a neighboring social service league weathered a similar snag and continued to carry on. It is wholesome too for all boards of directors to acquire a state consciousness. Objectives aimed at in various communities in one state can easily become crystallized into a state program. Organized action toward certain outstanding social objectives created the Iowa Child Welfare Commission. The extension of the Iowa Plan throughout the state is due not alone to the stimulus which the university offers but largely to the effort of counties already functioning under it to make it a state-wide program.

Another important function has been delegated to the social worker on the University Extension staff in Iowa in the chairmanship of the Division of Social and Industrial Conditions of the State Federation of Women's Clubs. The problems of children handicapped by social environment find ready interest on the part of the organized women of the state. As elsewhere these groups have proved invaluable in their support of progressive social action in various counties in Iowa. The federation's committee on Social and Industrial Conditions includes representatives from every district in the state; its members serve as minute-men for social work. They help extend the lines for more adequate organization. They suggest subjects for discussion on club programs. They champion organization for social work in case of attack. They help strengthen the weaker organizations. They spread understanding and create support for the right foundations for local social programs.

Iowa has a far journey to travel before she can claim a program commensurate with the state's needs in the field of social work. But after all, social well-being and education are common branches of a single root. The University of Iowa recognizes social work as an educational movement, and is assuming a leadership in educating the people of the state to discern social needs and to build sound programs of constructive service. The response of the people served by the university in this field encourages the belief that this leadership is valued and may well be extended further. The inquiries that come to the University of Iowa from other states point to opportunity for a similar service by other state universities that have not yet ventured into this field so divorced by tradition from seats of higher learning, yet proved by Iowa's experience to be ripe for harvest.

LOUISE COTTRELL

Hopping Hop-pickers

IF the social agencies of Denver and Salt Lake City are perplexed by the problem of dealing with Gasoline Gypsies, what do you imagine to be the griefs of the lone social welfare agency of a rural community with a population of only ten thousand? Put yourself in the place of the worker in such a community with no factories or other industries; a community in which all the employment "slack" is taken up by the hundreds of young men and women who are working their way through the college about which its life centers. Take away the city emergency hospital, or even the charity bed, and replace it by a privately-owned hospital when you have a "Ford-mother" about to give birth to her fourth, "born on the road"; take away your child-caring agencies, in which you may at least find temporary refuge for your dependent (fast becoming delinquent) "Ford-children"; and last of all face your problem without even a county poor farm to fall upon as a last resort, and you have some idea of what "Ford-families" mean to those pioneering in social work in the extreme West.

"Is this the Red Cross office?" comes the query over

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the telephone. "Will you come out and look after a family in the Green River School District? No, they moved here only about a month ago, man, wife and eight children; the children are all barefooted; we hear they haven't even enough to eat. We had a box social at the school-house last night and raised $13.00, but that won't go very far in a family of that size." Then the executive secretary (case work supervisor, visitor, *et al* combined) prevails upon a county commissioner to drive her eleven miles out in the country, where they wade the last half mile in water over their ankles, leaving the car on the last bit of dry ground.

Conditions are worse than they were depicted over the phone, but there are details which the rancher's wife overlooked; the tobacco bags hanging from the older boys' pockets though the family claimed to be without food; the fact that the wife could give no permanent address since they left Iowa in a car two years ago; that the last firm for which the husband worked proved non-existent upon investigation by a cooperating social agency; that while they were working at hop-yards in an adjacent county the mother and two oldest boys left this work to come into our county hunting, bagging two fine bucks which, unfortunately, were not going to carry them through the winter; that those who did remain at the hop-yards failed to make enough to get what baggage they had out of storage there. At the time of this writing—some two months later—the Ford has been consumed, as you might say; it was sold for $25 and the money spent for food and the father has just departed for parts unknown leaving his family behind him.

But to return to the hop picking. Loud and long were the complaints from our local people over the invasion of the yards this fall. During the past summer our county carried on extensive road work which received publicity in the press throughout the state and brought "Ford-families" by the dozen. All could not get on the road work; so they invaded the orchards, hop-yards and berry patches. In many parts of the Willamette Valley, these seasonal industries are looked upon by the industrious farmer and homesteader as a special dispensation of Providence for his benefit. He and all of his family go in a body; as a result the children earn their school books and clothes and the head of the household puts by a bit for the long winter months. This year, however, their earnings were not up to par. Why? Because there were so many pickers on the job that, in order that all of them might receive employment, the amount of work of an individual family was limited. In other words our diligent, self respecting home folks were robbed of their much needed income by a floating population that remained just long enough to get a "grub-stake" to move on to new adventures. And this in spite of intelligent effort on the part of a special state employment bureau working on the problem of the shifting, seasonal worker.

Nor do they all move on. Within six weeks of the time road work shut down because of the winter rains we began to receive, from all parts of the country, calls similar to the one above. Families stayed on till what little they had ahead was gone; then they lived on the bounty of nearby farmers who couldn't bear to see little children suffer; but finally even their patience wore out, and one by one itinerants were dropped on the shoulders of the lone social agency.

It was truly said that if an agency provides for these families it is criticized, and if it doesn't it is criticized; I may add that in a small community this criticism becomes a personal one on the head of the unfortunate executive secretary. Well do I remember the shocked tones of the bank president on my board when I stated that the X family (eight of them) would have to have their brakes relined before they could go on their way. "What! use money given for charity to buy auto fixtures? Never!" The next day the secretary went across the river to interview the family with the bank president, who knew the financial resources of both the organization and the community at this season of the year, and the county commissioner, who knew the employment resources of the entire county. The verdict of how to care for the family was contrary to the "transportation agreement" to which heretofore we had subscribed. But as Ross Sanderson said, "What are you going to do about it?"

All summer at an eastern graduate school of social service I listened to admonitions that we must steadily raise standards of case work, that we must lead our communities on to broader vision of what social case work means; that the worker must not lose her ideals through the daily round of details, etc. With all the fresh enthusiasm which contact with big people gives, I returned to my desk and fell to work on the Joe D. family; the father seventy-two years old and the youngest of the seven children with them six weeks old. They left our community two years ago with a new car purchased by mortgaging the home which had been in the family for generations; they had taken the usual tour of California; the usual marriage of daughters of fourteen and fifteen on the road; the usual disposal of the car each time for one a little worse because of the food and clothing thrown in the bargain; the usual ending by children begging rides so that "father might end his days among his old relations and friends." The said relatives had carried them for four months during the mother's fourteenth confinement and then gave up the ghost.

The secretary traveled miles over rough country roads trying to work out a plan for the family. They had been here less than six months and so were not entitled to county aid. She secured homes on two fine farms for the older boys where they could work and go to school; she prevailed upon a state children's agency to take four of the little ones in one home; she secured a position for the mother where she could have the nursing baby with her and finally arranged for the father at a home in an adjoining county. And after two weeks thus working out the details, on the Monday morning that she called to get the children to take to a barber to be bathed and cleaned (the family were camping) she found that on the day before (Sunday) the father had sold the furniture provided by the Red Cross and the wood donated by a philanthropic citizen, and had taken this money to get himself and his family moved over the line into an adjoining county. And the last we heard of them they had hit a town with a careless post of the Salvation Army and were said to be living on the fat of the land. The father had "got religion." He needed it sorely to make up for his two penitentiary records!

No, the social worker must not lose her vision nor her ideals, and she must take on the one hand all the criticism of irate citizens who feel that families that can afford cars should not be helped (let the mother give birth to the child in a truck) and on the other of the rural population who complain that "we give our money to the Red Cross, and then when we want them to help out a needy family they won't do

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a thing." How many more hours and gallons of gas than any rural worker has at her disposal it would take to try to explain to the big-hearted, widely scattered farmers just why she won't clothe these children and buy their school books until the father finds the job that he won't even take when it is offered him!

We don't pretend to have any solution to offer, though we have been gathering data for a thesis for over two years on this very problem. There was a time when we dreamed that some sort of confidential exchange could be worked out between states and communities. But we have given that up, for even now many of the wanderers have become "road-wise" to the fact that it is better to hit the town where there is no social agency; that when the town fails them, they still have, as a last resort, the big-hearted farmer to fall back upon. If their numbers keep on increasing, I think we might almost be justified in broadcasting our warnings. In this way we would reach even the isolated farmer. And maybe after the Joe D's and the Bill P's found that their wives and children could no longer be used as tools for an easy living, they might settle down to supporting them as they used to before Fords sold for $25 down and the balance "when you can catch 'em."

EDNA TIBBITS HAWLEY

A Lawyer Looks at Social Workers

THE law and social work are both designed to accomplish the same ultimate result. For regulation of itself, society has created law, and while the immediate effect of it is the control of society, in last analysis law is, as Burke said, "beneficence acting by rule."

Why then is discord sometimes manifested between the two professions?

The lawyer's answer:—

"Social workers know beneficence, but they don't know the rules, and think they do."

"Lawyers know the rules, but they don't know beneficence, and some of them don't even know the rules."

The lawyer is trained to respect and revere the law with all its vagaries, as the accumulated wisdom of the ages. The social worker derisively adds that the accumulation of the dark ages is entirely too conspicuous in the law.

Wrapped in rules, fictions and presumptions, the logic and wisdom of which are indelibly implanted in his mind, the lawyer is naturally prone to consider a social problem only in the light of those rules, fictions, and presumptions; which is to say, simply as a legal problem.

The social worker, impregnated with a noble ambition to diminish human misery, clear human confusion and remove human error, all at once and by the very shortest route, dislikes to be detoured from that route by mere rules, fictions and presumptions of law. These conflicting tendencies mark out the need for closer association and better mutual understanding between the two professions.

Considerations of law are closely interwoven with many phases of social service. Administrators of the law must perforce be encountered regularly in such service. Right or wrong, their perceptions must influence the accomplishment of the service, and their impressions of the social worker himself may have not the least important bearing on the result. If they entertain unfounded prejudice concerning the social service profession, then for the advancement of the profession, such erroneous notions should be removed.

It would be decidedly unfair to the social workers and also to the legal profession not to explain at this juncture that all lawyers do not, nor does any one lawyer, impute any one of the following faults to all social workers, or all to any one social worker. But in a combination of many individual conclusions, even though separately they are based mostly on limited experience, there may be found enough recurrence of similar complaints to warrant consideration of them as a charge by one profession against another.

After a careful culling of the chaff from the gist of criticisms, provided with excessive liberality by attorneys, young and old, the indictment is drawn in six main counts.

First: Personal rights created and recognized by law are too often either unknown, forgotten or ignored by social workers.

Second: Social workers are too credulous toward their wards or charges, and too suspicious of adverse claimants, forming beliefs on slight evidence which cannot be shaken by stronger evidence to the contrary.

Third: They are influenced too much by ideals and not enough by practical considerations.

Fourth: Information obtained in confidential relations is not properly guarded.

Fifth: They arrogate to themselves the control of other people's affairs, without solicitation or consent by the persons being managed.

Sixth: They give out too much legal advice.

The first count is that personal legal rights are too often forgotten or ignored by social workers. A plea of not guilty to that count is entered. The lawyer cites as proof of his statement the detention by hospitals (charitable institutions) of patients cured, but not discharged until bills are paid. He mentions the arrest and overnight imprisonment of his client, a husband and father, by police-women so that the mother may spirit away the offspring of the union during his enforced absence. He talks of the social worker who prosecutes his client for child whipping because the client does not make adequate provision for his wife's adornment.

The social worker pleads justification.

What if we do detain patients, even though we have no lien on their bodies for unpaid bills; what if we do arrest worthless men to help their wives take the children away, even though in law the father and mother are joint custodians and equally entitled to the control of the children; what if we do try to make it miserable for a no-good man who won't properly support his wife, even though he has a right reasonably to whip his child in punishment? Doesn't the end justify the means?

Thus, strange to say, the social worker unconsciously turns lawyer, becomes technical and claims acquittal because the charge is drawn in the superlative, arguing that if disregard of personal rights brings forth good social results, though he may forget or ignore such rights "often," it can never be *too often* as alleged in the complaint.

Commending the enthusiasm of social workers, but reprehending their one-sided faith, the lawyer passes on to the second count, which assails the zealous but uncritical sympathy of social workers for persons under their protection.

Instances might be multiplied, but one will serve to denote the import of this allegation. A careful and hard working lawyer, without receiving any advance retaining fee at all, magnanimously undertook to defend a man in a prosecution

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for embezzlement—after first taking a deed of all his client's property to secure payment of $500 for his services. Somehow or other, that diligence, so effective in securing him his fee, was quite ineffective in securing his client an acquittal.

Some time later the lawyer, not having been paid the money owing him for services, threatened to sell the property. In view of the client's asserted innocence of the crime, a social worker in the prison concurred with the client in the opinion that the lawyer's main effort had been centered upon depriving the client of his property rather than upon keeping him from being deprived of his liberty, and that therefore the property should be restored.

At the instance of the social worker, another lawyer was induced to investigate. His search brought him to the conclusion that the case had been properly tried and that the fee had been honestly earned. Whereupon he negotiated with the first lawyer to have the premises sold, the fee paid, and the balance turned over to the prisoner; all under the second lawyer's direction. That report and plan was disapproved by the social worker, not yet willing to believe that justice had not gone awry.

Into the picture comes a third lawyer to investigate the actions of the first two, and to set aside the deed. In his pursuit of the truth, he finds that the client had never owned the premises; that at best, the client might have only a possible claim against an administrator of the property, and furthermore that at all times the client had been aware of these facts. The third lawyer's recommendation was that an assignment be made by the client to the first lawyer for immediate action against the administrator to save whatever rights there were from becoming outlawed in the near future. Still uncertain, the social worker rejected that proposal and assured the prisoner that the matter would be looked into further.

It would seem that at least one social worker is guilty on the second count.

On the third averment it is argued that social workers think too much in terms of what ought to be done rather than what can be done. Temporarily to relieve the monotony of detail, particulars are not related but the point is made by general comment on the failure of social workers to consider the formidability of insurmountable obstacles. To resort to plain vernacular, "they never know when they are licked."

By those strange and subtle rules of law designed to bring the most good to the most people, it is sometimes made impossible to satisfy the requirements of natural justice in some particular case. The social worker would have natural justice administered in all cases without regard to fixed or general rules. If a man has made unfair distribution of his property in a will, the will must be broken; if a bad bargain has been made, the transaction must be annulled and the parties returned to status quo; if property has been deeded by a father beyond the reach of his children who have supported him, the deed must be set aside; all despite a clear lack of proof or evidence upon which to base such action. A claim must not be settled for just what it would cost to defend it if there is plenty of available hearsay to prove it.

On the fourth count, the following case is set forth to illustrate the charge that information obtained by social workers in confidential relations is not properly guarded.

A social worker's interest in a client took her to the welfare department of the client's employer. The factory welfare agent confidentially communicated to the social worker a suspicion entertained in the employer's office against the client concerning the theft of some articles. This information was transmitted by the social worker to another, who dutifully transcribed it upon her case record sheet. In a moment of the latter's inattention, the client's eyes wandered upon this portion of the record left open to the gaze of any who cared to read. Fortunately the troubles following were adjusted without intervention of the court in a law suit for slander or libel.

Of course, no confidence of a client was violated in that affair, but it needs only a glance at some of the questions asked by one social agency of another to see what little consideration is sometimes expected to be given to communications that may have been made in confidence by a client.

Be it remembered that no attempt is made to argue the inadvisability of cooperation among social agencies, or in fact to argue anything, this being merely a recital of the workings of a lawyer's mind, with a few exhibits to elucidate the statements made, all of which may mean—whatever it may mean.

It would often be palpably improper for a private attorney or private physician to answer questions concerning his clients or patients, such as are propounded by social agencies seeking information along the lines indicated in the following excerpt from a questionnaire typical of those in common use by social agencies. At the top of the page there appears the client's name, address, and this:

Registered by you on——
The above named has come to us because of——

Then follow the questions:

1. Who brought the family to your attention and why?
2. Nature of service requested?
3. Total amount of relief?
4. What was your diagnosis?
5. Did family misrepresent with intent to deceive?

A lawyer conceives the probability that an unfortunate who is compelled by circumstances to solicit the aid of a charitable agency because of domestic trouble, illegitimate offspring, involvement in criminal proceedings, disease, etcetera, would care to restrict the number of his confidantes to the ones of his own choosing, and that he approaches the ones of his choice little knowing that his name may be bruited about at the head of a questionnaire announcing as reason for his approach to his benefactor that he is a henpecked husband, an illegitimate father, a thief or whatnot. Even though it be for his own good, he might still object to the possession by one benefactor of secrets intended for another.

Unless there can be found in the quasi public nature of social agencies some basis to justify consideration of an application for relief as carrying within it an implied agreement that communications will not be deemed confidential, dissemination of information so received is repugnant to the lawyer's sense of privilege.

Next it is claimed that social workers (if the elegantly concise language of one attorney may be accepted here) "have a penchant for butting in." It has been whimsically said, "they will tell you where you must be born, when you must work, whom you must marry, why you must divorce, what you must eat, which you must not, how you must live, the death you must die, and the place you must lie."

And finally, social workers are censured for their frequent perpetration of that blundering *faux pas* in social eti-

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quette, to wit: Presenting the law to others when they are strangers to it themselves. "To explain the law and convince of its soundness is beset with enough difficulty, even in dealing with raw green clients unaccustomed to law," grumble they whose business it is to advise of the law, "without first having to dislodge the taint in minds over-ripened in law by the radiance of those beaming luminaries of the curbstone, practising without benefit of license."

And so ends the indictment in true legal fashion in an abundance of words and a paucity of ideas.

But it is not entirely devoid of meaning if it has accomplished the purpose for which it was intended, that is, to serve as an introduction, to trick you into attention and attract your interest to the real object of this writing: The easiest approach for a social worker to the law or the lawyer is through a legal aid society.

Judges, prosecutors and other public officials are besieged regularly by persons in distress. The pressure of their public duties forbids the devotion of much of their time to such personal matters, and while they give much help, they are not in a position to prosecute or to defend the claims of individuals in purely personal conflicts. Many an attorney would gladly respond to the needs of those who require his services but cannot pay his ordinary fees, but how is he to get in touch with the very persons who need him most, and how are they to be sure that his professed generosity is genuine? The needs of the poor man in court can best be met by an organized effort to see, immediately, that he obtains the benefit of his legal rights, and, in the long run, that legislation is framed, if necessary, to meet the general evils of which his particular case may be an instance.

The Michigan State Bar Association, recognizing the professional responsibilities of lawyers in the field of legal aid, has appointed a committee to spread information about the work, to induce local bar associations to form committees, and to urge and assist in the formation of legal aid bureaus wherever they may be needed. This committee feels that there is need of an established legal aid office in all cities of more than 25,000 population, and of a definite group or committee of the bar to whom all poor applicants may be referred in cities of from 10,000 to 25,000. Not the least of the advantages which might be obtained from a widespread system of legal aid committee would be the collection of a body of data, which, analyzed and correlated, would give reliable statistics on which to base legislation on behalf of the poor. And it goes without saying, that such an organization can be obtained only with the aid of the social workers, who know of the need of it, to arouse lawyers and public officials and politicians from their traditional lassitude and conservatism and agitate them into action.

OTTO G. WISMER

Christmas, 1925

THE tumult and the telephone had died. Goodfellows and volunteer Santa Clauses had departed. At her desk in the Social Service Exchange, flanked by filing cases and barricaded with neatly stacked reports, the new executive secretary added up the grand total of the Christmas Bureau.

"A thousand more families than last year," she said, "and two thousand fewer duplications. The idea of a safe and sane Christmas is getting over.

"Before the Christmas Bureau, the first epoch was promiscuous, undirected Christmas giving, overflowing from the well-to-do districts of the city into the ghettos and slums. Later, it dawned on us that there was nothing Christmas-y, much less Christian, in one enterprising family's receiving a dozen bouncing baskets and selling them at five dollars apiece, while their self-respecting neighbors dined on dried fish and dead hopes. The next step was the Christmas Bureau, clearing the names of applicants for toys and dinners, guarding against duplications, and bringing the giver into direct contact with one deserving and needy family. This helped to discourage the professional letter writers, and brought a cheerful order out of Christmas chaos.

"This year we've made at least one distinct advance. We specialized on fifty selected families, and talked over their particular needs with the giver. The Winnetka Congregational Church took twenty-six of them, several weeks before Christmas. Each Sunday the minister told the story of one or two families and asked his people for contributions. He spoke of a baby who wanted a cuddly toy, a youngster who needed a red sweater, a colored boy who had asked for a Life of Lincoln. Bright children being educated by scholarships made a special appeal. He talked, too, of intelligent Christmas giving, and of how mothers liked to buy things for their own children. So it worked out that in almost every instance the gift was money, and the social worker on the case went shopping with the mother. Afterwards she wrote the church a letter about it, telling exactly how it was spent.

"Nineteen Twenty-Five seems far ahead but we can plan. The next step is more of everything. More special families. More directed, intelligent giving. More satisfaction to the family, giver and social worker on the job. More Christmas, all around."

HELEN CODY BAKER

SEATTLE CHILDREN seem, on the basis of juvenile court statistics, to become delinquent about four times as often as do the children of New York, and five times as often as the children of Chicago. Behind those statistics, however, lie systems of classification which differ so widely from state to state and city to city, that any comparison of this kind is worthless. In the opinion of the federal Children's Bureau there is need for a uniform method of recording the facts with reference to the children who pass through the courts each year, so that there may be some logical basis for national statistics in this as in other departments of work for children. The bureau reports that eighteen states now have agreed to supply figures on the number of work permits issued for the whole state, so that at least a beginning has been made in obtaining national data on the trend of child labor. Increasingly common are the reports made to the state departments of public welfare by the local agencies on the dependent children in their care. During the coming year the bureau hopes to explore extensively the question of the cost and feasibility of assembling current national statistics as to children who are delinquent, dependent or legally employed.

THE CHIEF of the Children's Bureau makes a special plea for a continuing appropriation of $75,000 a year to make possible a study of the prevention of sex delinquency among children and methods of care for those who have become delinquent. The bureau has ample authority to undertake such a work, but cannot supply the information and advice constantly asked by local communities unless it is able to create a division devoted to this subject. "There is no field of child study," says Miss Abbott more important or more neglected than this."

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Stirring Up Rural Kentucky

Here is an attempt to speed up progress. Rural communities move slowly—unless they fall into the hands of "boosters," and then it is a question whether they move forward or backward. Under the leadership of Berea College, Kentucky communities, particularly in the hilly eastern half of the state which is famous for its isolation, were spurred on to better their homes and farms and the outward structure of their common life. The competition lasted two years. This is the first official report of the results in one of the most ambitious community betterment contests thus far organized.

IN the great mountain region of the South, twice the size of New York, live five million people, three and one-half millions of whom are strictly rural dwellers. About one-third of this number is not only rural in the ordinary sense but "super-rural," living "back of beyond," as Dr. Horace Kephart puts it. The Extension Department of Berea College has tried for many years to discover the most effective methods of reaching this rural population. Nothing it has done since the beginning of its extension work compares in effectiveness with the County Achievement Contest that was conducted in eastern Kentucky from August 1, 1922 to August 1, 1924.

There are many examples of local cooperative enterprises that have done much good in community building but these local movements are so slow that it would require a thousand years to revitalize the rural life of America by such methods. With our enthusiasm tuned up to a high note and the needs of isolated rural communities burning into our souls, we decided to try what some people said was impossible; namely, an intensive mass movement for country life betterment on a county-wide scale.

We launched the movement in the form of a county-wide contest. Our first act was to build an ideal county on paper. The county is considered the political and business unit and, together with the normal activities of the county seat, it usually circumscribes the lives of the people. If any one community is to succeed permanently it must do so through the success of the county as a whole. Hence the county-wide plan.

Our program divided the activities of the county into ten departments. After carefully thinking through the needs, interests and activities of eastern Kentucky, we made the following list of major interests and arbitrarily fixed the standard of points they were to receive:

	Points:
School System	2000
Health and Sanitation	1000
Home and Farm Improvement	1000
Church and Sunday-school	1000
Agriculture and Livestock	1000
Community Clubs	500
Junior Clubs	1000
Roads and Public Buildings	1000
Newspaper Circulation	500
Social Work	1000
Total	10,000

We were of the opinion that a county could not reach perfection without showing a high development in each of these ten major interests.

With our ideal county on paper, the question of getting it into operation became the absorbing one. It must be launched with an unusual impetus or it would be impossible to arouse the many isolated communities of the county. We recalled that a number of smaller enterprises had taken the form of a contest—for example, one promoted by Dr. W. A. McKeever among a number of small cities in the state of Kansas. Though there are a number of advantages in favor of the town in carrying out community improvement programs, where the population is compact, common interests are in one place, and the leaders are usually better trained, we decided to try the contest plan, provided some one would furnish the prizes. Judge R. W. Bingham, publisher and editor of the Louisville Courier Journal, offered to back the contest with $5,000 in cash prizes: a grand prize of $3,000 and the second prize of $2,000 to be given to the two counties showing the highest rate of improvement during the period of the contest. With our program on paper and the prize money assured, we turned our attention to the important task of getting a few counties interested.

I made my first appeal to a number of county agricultural agents who are in the main the most active and most effective community workers in the mountains of Kentucky. Practically every agent to whom the proposition was presented manifested an interest from the beginning. Within a month after the program was launched, ten counties had signified their desire to enter.

Before accepting any entry, we required every public official and every substantial service organization in the county to sign an agreement of cooperation and good will.

Mass meetings were then called in the courthouse and other centers throughout the county. A finance committee was appointed to procure funds for running special announcements in the local paper, for printing and circulating posters, and offering small prizes to school children for various types of work. By the time each county was thoroughly organized, nearly everyone was aware that something unusual was about to take place. Our idea was to put so much impetus into the launching of the contest that the people would receive an unusual shock.

Such a shock must, of course, be followed up with a real program that will sustain the aroused interest of the

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people or the whole proposition will fall flat. Our big task, to hold the interest after the first shock, was accomplished through the county council, the central organization. This was composed of a chairman, secretary and the chairmen of ten departamental committees. These twelve citizens, leading men and women of the county, meeting monthly, gave much time and unstinted thought to the movement during the contest. Every county that succeeded was one with a live, working county council; the four that failed to complete the program failed because of the lack of interest on the part of the county council.

In order to divide the county up into units of workable groups, community clubs were organized at every natural center. A post office, blacksmith's shop and a store with two or three good platforms on which farmers can sit on rainy days and Saturday afternoons is enough of a metropolis for the establishment of a community club. Such a center can easily be reached by twenty-five or fifty families. These community clubs might be called miniature county organizations. All of the committees represented in the county council were represented in the community clubs. It was in these groups that the big work of the county was done. The community club usually met once a month and always had plenty to do. Two or three departments were usually given the major portion of each meeting to discuss their problems, which were the common problems of the community.

When the county council put on departmental campaigns in cooperation with state or national agencies, it worked through the community clubs. For example, the county council cooperated with the Board of Education and the county superintendent in celebrating Education Week in November. The work was passed out to the leaders of the community clubs and they in turn made education and the duty they owed to their local schools the principal subject of their club meetings. When the county council desired to put on a health program for a week in cooperation with the state board of Health, clinics were held and literature distributed through the aid of the community clubs. Clean-Up Week has become a rather fixed institution in Kentucky and the County Achievement Organization in nearly all of the counties placed special emphasis on cleaning up and painting both farm and village homes during that week.

Building and repairing roads was an outstanding accomplishment of the contest. Nearly 20,000 man-days and more than 2,0000 team-days of free labor were given on the roads of Rockcastle, Jackson, Lee, Breathitt, Owsley, Knott and Morgan counties during the two years of the contest, worth approximately $60,000. Road working days were set aside in three counties during which time 3,000 citizens gave two full days of labor each on the roads. This free labor did not include militia road working that is required by the county courts in all of these counties. Rockcastle County reported 127 miles of roads reconstructed or graded sufficiently for automobile service during a large part of the year. In addition to the many miles of dirt roads that were put in condition, the citizens of the same county built six miles of permanent gravel road and gave more than 300 man-days and several hundred dollars toward building seven miles of macadamized road. Road building in Rockcastle County as well as in Lee and Jackson is going forward at an unprecedented rate.

Rockcastle, during our home and farm improvement campaign, made a survey of 2,100 homes. Credit was given for all the homes that were below "standard" when the contest began and became standard or made improvements during the two-year improvement. "Standard" homes were defined thus:

1. Located so that natural drainage is good with privy, pigpen, stable and chicken house not nearer than fifty feet to back door and well, unless privy has septic tank, and drainage must not be toward the house and well from the outbuildings.
2. Not less than three rooms for family of two.
3. If more than two occupants, add one room for each two persons added.
4. Doors and windows effectively screened against flies. At least two windows to each room to afford sufficient light and ventilation.

What Six Kentucky Counties Gained in the Contest

Only a few of the tangible achievements registered in the County Achievement Contest by Lee, Jackson, Rockcastle, Breathitt, Owsley and Knott Counties are summarized here:

Roads and Public Buildings

Two hundred and ten miles of roads graded or repaired for automobile service. Eight miles of permanent gravel road built by community cooperation. Seven miles of stone road built largely by free labor and local contributions. One court house remodeled, public buildings in two counties repaired.

Schools

School attendance increased over preceding year by average of 5 per cent. $6,450 raised for school equipment. One hundred and twelve Parent-Teacher Associations organized than previous maximum.

Health and Sanitation

Twenty-seven health clinics examined 2,600 children and young people. Twice as many school-children vaccinated as ever before. One hundred and twenty-seven sanitary privies installed as compared with 7 installed during previous two years.

Farm and Home Improvements

Nearly 200 country homes became "standard." One community creamery established. More than 400 miles of new wire fencing put up. Twenty-five thousand fruit trees planted. Market value of eggs and vegetables produced increased $40,000 over previous years.

Church and Sunday School

Four new churches erected; 5 old ones replaced. Fifty-five new Sunday Schools organized. Sunday School attendance increased 57 per cent.

Newspaper Circulation

A campaign was made to increase the circulation of dailies, county papers, school, religious and agricultural journals. Of these county papers showed the largest net increase: 2700 copies; the farm journals increased by 1700, the dailies 1650, and the religious journals 485. One defunct newspaper rehabilitated under new management.

Community Organizations

One hundred and twenty-six community clubs organized; 85 held regular monthly meetings; 1,835 members; 2 county ministerial associations, 3 county educational associations, 1 Kiwanis Club, 1 credit union, 3 county boards of health, 2 singing clubs, 2 women's clubs also organized.

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5. Safe water supply tested by State Board of Health and conveniently located within 10 yards of kitchen door.
6. A privy cleaned regularly and kept in repair.
7. Heated by open fire-place or furnace.
8. Front and back yard free from rubbish and litter of all kinds such as tin cans, loose stones, vegetable refuse, weeds and useless boards and brush.
9. Floors at least two feet above the ground with concrete, brick or stone foundation, ventilated.
10. Walls plastered, kalsomined, painted, or if papered, clean and not torn or defaced.

The report blanks for home and farm improvements were sent out to the parents through the schools. Explanation of the use of these blanks was made through circulars, through the county paper, and at the community meetings. A standard home blank, in addition to the one for recording miscellaneous improvements, was given to each family that expressed a desire to bring the house up to standard. One farm home in Owsley county reported:

Cellar drained, a light plant installed, a Ford car bought, a garage built, outbuildings whitewashed, fencing put up, a lawn mower bought, 25 fruit trees and flower garden planted, interior of house painted and papered, new hardwood floors, a velvet rug, linoleum in the kitchen, new furniture bought for bedroom and living room, porch and fence painted, porch and privy screened.

No points were given for the new "bedroom suit" or the other furniture or the Ford, but the cleaning up and sanitary improvements and garden work and light plant all helped in the total score of the county.

When the contest closed, the ingenuity of the county council was tested in the devising of the best and most speedy method of collecting reports of the home improvements over the country. In Rockcastle County, the council divided the county into twelve zones and each member of the council was made responsible for getting the reports of all the homes in his zone. They agreed to choose two willing citizens in each school district to collect reports. Interest had become so great that before the close of the second day 144 people had completely covered the county and collected data on 2,100 homes.

Space will not permit my going into the details of all of the departments in the contest. A summary of recorded and verified achievements is at best a cold, bare outline that can hardly suggest the enthusiasm that went into many of these projects.

One community chose an abandoned church for its first meeting place. When the subject of finding something to do came up someone called attention to the dilapidated building in which they were meeting. As a result of this discussion, the Church and Sunday School Committee was directed to ascertain the attitude of the community toward the reorganization of the church and the re-modeling of the building. The outcome was practically a new building. Both outside and inside were repaired and painted. The house was newly covered and equipped with new seats and pulpit. The rickety fence was torn down and a new one erected. The church yard was cleared off and the grass mowed regularly. A minister was found who agreed to become a part-time pastor and direct the church life of the community. A Sunday-school of one hundred scholars was organized. The church is still living in Lee County, the county that won the contest. Similar stories could be told of other churches in the same county and in at least three other counties.

Lee had gone through an oil boom and is today the largest oil producing county in Kentucky. When oil was high and prosperity unprecedented, the citizens of the county seat did not stop long enough to consider the importance of establishing a telephone system, but when the county council was organized, the need of telephones was recognized. In three months after the county entered the contest it signed a contract for a modern system.

Since the recession of the oil industry, the county newspaper became an unprofitable business and was abandoned. The machinery was in bad condition and the prospects for a newspaper seemed rather hopeless. But the county council, in cooperation with the Kiwanis Club which was organized after Lee County went into the contest, decided that they could not profitably carry on a county-wide educational program without the aid of a newspaper. The secretary of the council agreed to join a partnership with some other enterprising citizen for purchasing the plant and reorganizing the paper. This was done. The secretary was a leader in the Republican organization, and his partner was a former Democratic representative, and the Beattyville Enterprise is no longer a political sheet but an independent county organ.

How were the counties graded? There were two methods of scoring. Some lines of activity were given an absolute score on specific achievements, while other lines were given a relative score based on the amount of progress made. In scoring the progress made in school attendance, we had to bear in mind the difference in population of two given counties. Attendance was therefore graded according to the percentage of progress. This method was employed wherever possible to give the poorer and more sparsely populated counties an equal chance with the larger ones. Wherever it was not possible to give a relative score, each achievement received a definite number of points. The method of scoring was so carefully worked out that we received no complaints from the contestants. The first prize was warded to Lee County, because Lee made the largest number of points (16,187), taking all the departments as a whole and because the observation of the judges corresponded with the recorded achievements. The second prize was very difficult to award as there were less than fifty points difference between Rockcastle and Jackson. The personal visit of the judges to the two counties determined their decision. Although the Jackson County report showed forty-eight more points than the report of Rockcastle the inspection of the two counties was in favor of Rockcastle. The judges combined their observations with the written records and could come to no other decision than to declare a tie between the counties.

Will the work of the contest be conserved? At the time the judges made their tour of inspection and scoring, the county organizations voted unanimously to continue the work after the close of the contest, regardless of the awards. Reports that are still coming from the contesting counties indicate that their interest in most of the departments is still unabated. The chairman of one county that did not win a prize told me that his county would never fall back to the old unorganized way of doing things, that the contest had convinced his people that a compact county-wide organization offers the best voluntary machinery yet devised for accomplishing common purposes.

MARSHALL E. VAUGHN

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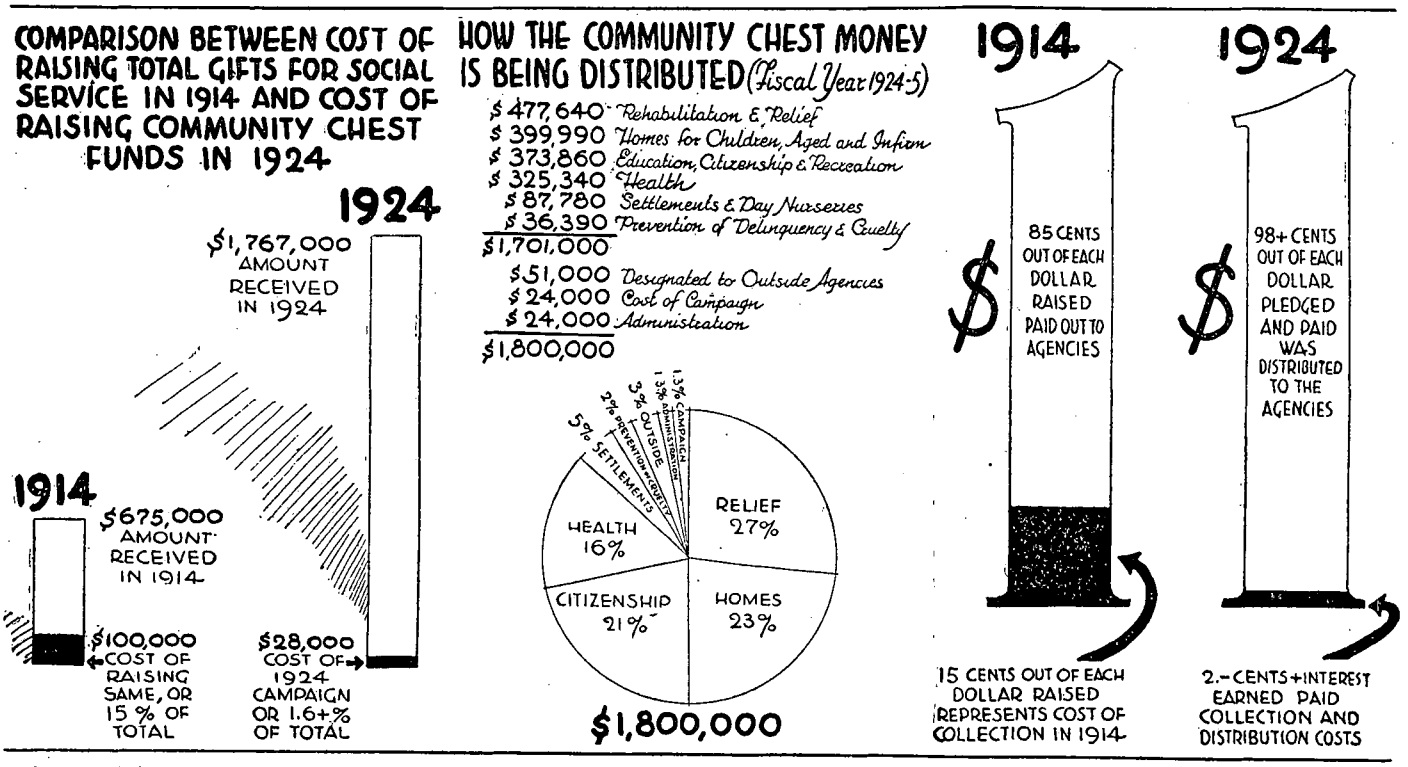
Ten Years of Federation in Cincinnati

THE way people speak the name of a thing often betrays their conception of the thing itself. For instance, some say community *chest,* and we catch their thought in terms of dollars; others say *community* chest, and thus reveal their sense of fellowship. Such emphasis is a slight matter in itself but great in its significance. In Cincinnati the accent is ever on *community*—community of responsibility, community of effort, community of life—and it was this spirit that characterized the tenth anniversary celebration of her Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies on January 12 and made it vital.

I left Cincinnati just prior to the organization of the Council of Social Agencies and returned nearly ten years later; so that perhaps I am in an unusually advantageous position to judge of the progress of social work there during this period under the federated system. Under the old order of individual independence there existed a certain fine cordiality among the agencies and workers as well as a vague idea that some sort of association would be desirable, but the recognition of relationship was little more than academic, while the setting up of new agencies in every field and the process of specialization in every group went blithely on without regard to the consequences of duplication. It was a case of the spirit being willing but the action weak. One accustomed to this state of things, who goes away for a few years and on coming back finds a truly confederate system in operation, is struck by the profound changes that have been brought about. He sees most of the old established agencies still at work but misses others and learns that in some instances their service had become unnecessary, while in others their tasks had been transferred to fellow agencies in the interest of simpler organization and all had been dissolved. Remembering the high birth-rate of such bodies in the past he marvels that so few had come into being during his absence, and traces the check to federation. He sees no new work undertaken without an understanding among all concerned; he sees the current work dispatched through conference; he sees public authorities and private agencies both serving the people through each other; he sees the funds for social service vastly increased, the competition for gifts eliminated, and all worthy agencies assured of support. In short, he sees cooperation and the host of benefits that flow from it.

The story of the gradual development of this cooperation can easily be read in the names of six local organizations in the order of their being: Monday Evening Club; Business Men's Benevolent Advisory Association; Conference on Charities and Philanthropy; Council of Social Agencies; War Chest; and the Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies. This last-named federation celebrated last month not its own tenth anniversary alone but also the more remote but none-the-less essential contributions of its forerunners, as well as the city's tradition of civic pride throughout the one hundred and thirty-seven years of her life. It celebrated, too, the growth of humanitarian activities in all that period from the neighborly aid of the early days in behalf of the sick and the starving to the massing of forces in modern times for promoting the common good in every phase of life. It celebrated the city's faithfulness to her ideals in the face of disaster, as in the great flood of 1913, when the people joined themselves together to meet the pressing needs in that emergency and when impetus was given to the growing tendency to pool local resources of energy and funds. But above all it celebrated the flowering of its own plans in the close association of church and home and school, of institutions and agencies, of public officers and private groups, and of their several branches, in the common cause of the common weal.

Nearly one thousand of the city's leaders in every line of social, religious, civic and educational endeavor attended


COMPARISON BETWEEN COST OF RAISING TOTAL GIFTS FOR SOCIAL SERVICE IN 1914 AND COST OF RAISING COMMUNITY CHEST FUNDS IN 1924
1924
$1,767,000 AMOUNT RECEIVED IN 1924
1914
$675,000 AMOUNT RECEIVED IN 1914
$100,000 COST OF RAISING SAME, OR 15 % OF TOTAL
$28,000 COST OF 1924 CAMPAIGN OR 1.6+% OF TOTAL
HOW THE COMMUNITY CHEST MONEY IS BEING DISTRIBUTED (Fiscal Year 1924-5)
$ 477,640 Rehabilitation & Relief
$ 399,990 Homes for Children, Aged and Infirm
$ 373,860 Education, Citizenship & Recreation
$ 325,340 Health
$ 87,780 Settlements & Day Nurseries
$ 36,390 Prevention of Delinquency & Cruelty
$1,701,000
$51,000 Designated to Outside Agencies
$ 24,000 Cost of Campaign
$ 24,000 Administration
$1,800,000
1.3% CAMPAIGN
1.3% ADMINISTRATION
3% OUTSIDE
2% PREVENTION CRUELTY
5% SETTLEMENTS
RELIEF 27%
HEALTH 16%
HOMES 23%
CITIZENSHIP 21%
$1,800,000
1914
85 CENTS OUT OF EACH DOLLAR RAISED PAID OUT TO AGENCIES
15 CENTS OUT OF EACH DOLLAR RAISED REPRESENTS COST OF COLLECTION IN 1914
1924
98+ CENTS OUT OF EACH DOLLAR PLEDGED AND PAID WAS DISTRIBUTED TO THE AGENCIES
2.-CENTS+INTEREST EARNED PAID COLLECTION AND DISTRIBUTION COSTS

Courtesy of Community Chest, Cincinnati

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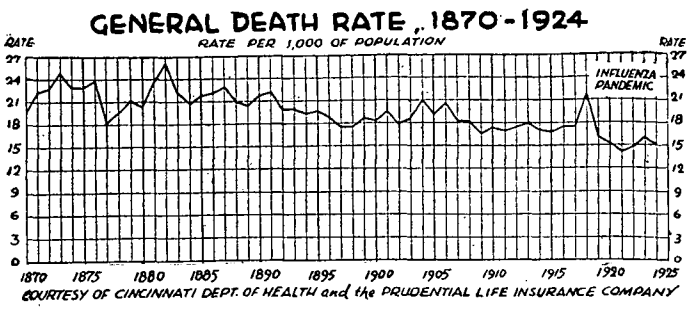

CINCINNATI'S HEALTH EXPERIENCE

a dinner in celebration of the anniversary. Tribute was paid to Fred A. Geier, president of The Cincinnati Milling Machine Company and the steadfast leader of the Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies through its early struggles and for several years thereafter; to W. J. Norton, the first secretary of the federation; and to many others without whose faith in the soundness of the plan the undertaking could not have succeeded, such as William J. Shroder, who for several years has given the benefit of his highly trained mind and seasoned judgment to the Cincinnati federation as a full time voluntary service.

The main feature of the occasion was the address delivered by C. M. Bookman, secretary of the Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies, who has been associated with the federation almost since its beginning, as assistant secretary from 1915 to 1917 and as executive secretary ever since. In discussing the development of comprehensive plans of work for the social welfare and the necessity for understanding both social conditions and the forces available for use in dealing with them, Mr. Bookman pointed out that the pressure of increasing population in our urban centers is a leading factor in causing the most serious of our problems. The wants of each individual must be supplied and yet when everyone lives at his neighbor's elbow and each sector of his life overlaps the corresponding sectors of other men's lives, until even the air we breathe, the water we drink and the food we eat are subject to social control, the evils bred of congestion seem well-nigh beyond our power to suppress. In every kind of work that is not by its very nature an individual enterprise, the forces that lie in orderly association must be brought into play if the unfortunate conditions that arise from undirected association are to be controlled. In no sphere is this more striking than in business, whose centralization has been largely responsible for the modern city with all its advantages and its crying evils, and business must understand that the same means that brought about its own development must now be utilized to prevent whatever is against the public interest as well as to foster the growth of whatever promotes it.

The results of social work are expressed in joy of life and in the contentment of people, intangible states of mind and being that cannot be reduced to exact terms, however the extent of illiteracy or the number of unemployed may have been altered, but financial gifts may be taken as an index of public interest. Contrasting the $675,000 received in 1914 for social work by the several agencies in Cincinnati with the $1,767,000—more than $4.00 per capita—received ten years later, one is astonished at the expansion of service thus made possible. Ten years ago about 5,000 residents of Cincinnati were giving regularly toward the support of social work—last year 74,000 gave their pledges to the chest. The annual campaign has become an institution. In Mr. Bookman's terse phrasing: "More givers, more money, more service."

The cooperation of public and private agencies has long been a striking characteristic of social work in Cincinnati, extending even to private effort under public auspices, and its effects are apparent in the reduced death rate; in the great increase in sums obtained from negligent parents for the support of their families through keeping them at work, and in the corresponding decrease in their terms of imprisonment; in the saving of nearly all wayward children from commitment to correctional institutions by means of probation and family care; in the smaller number of children exploited and exposed to unwholesome influences; in the more exact knowledge of factors contributing to anti-social behavior; and in the more scientific treatment of abnormal and sub-normal types.

It may fairly be asked of a federation of social welfare agencies whether all duplication of effort has been prevented and whether the organization of the work and its processes have been thoroughly simplified. The answer, of course, is: No. Any other answer would be dishonest. It has done a great deal of such constructive work and its mere existence has discouraged the spread of competition. Federation is not yet a perfect device, functioning perfectly, but it is making a great contribution in a way that does not sacrifice human sentiment to efficiency. In Cincinnati the federation has, within the short space of the past two years, turned over to established agencies some of its own original social work in the interest of simplification and has itself provided centralized service of other kinds. It has induced agencies operating in closely related fields to set up joint services of their own, and has gladly financed this and left its management to them in order to avoid duplication. It carries on with the University of Cincinnati a school for the training of students in social work for the benefit of the whole community so as to make it no longer necessary for each agency to train its own workers.

To quote Mr. Bookman again: "The Community Chest and Council of Social Agencies has united our people as no other one agent has done. It has ministered to those in need, reclaimed lives and restored faith and hope. It observes this, its tenth anniversary, in a humble spirit, fully realizing how far short of perfect its work has been but thankful that it has been able to carry to one and all a message of helpfulness and the gift of brotherly love."

EDWARD N. CLOPPER

A COUNTY-WIDE campaign to prevent highway accidents has been in progress in Westchester County, New York, since May 1. Through a Public Safety Bureau, the Westchester County Chamber of Commerce was able to organize safety committees in 28 of the larger communities in the county and to secure the cooperation of the others, in all 41, to hold a safety week in the spring, to stress safety teaching in the schools, and to blanket the county with 10,000 posters (of which the most pungent read "Fools used to blow out the gas—now they step on it"). The coroners' records show a net gain during the first six months of the campaign: the deaths from motor accidents were 33 as compared with 46 during the corresponding period a year ago. Eight persons were killed while riding in motor cars as compared with 15 in the 1923 period; 25 pedestrians as compared with 31.

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EDUCATION

Will History Repeat Itself?

HISTORY repeats itself. This aphorism is about to receive a mighty affirmation in our time.

"There are some periods of great conflagration," says John Jay Chapman, "when a whole epoch is lighted up with one great flame of idea, which takes perhaps a few decades to arise, blaze and fall, during which time it shows all men in its glare. . . . It happened that a period of this kind passed over the United States between the years 1830 and 1865. There is nothing to be found in that epoch which does not draw its significance, its interest, its permanent power from the slavery question."

One ventures to predict that the future historian or biographer likewise will write: It happened that a period of this kind passed over the United States between the years 1914 and 1950. There is nothing to be found in that epoch which does not draw its significance, its interest, its permanent power from the war question.

The period between 1830 and 1865 was characterized by hair-trigger nervousness, by suppression of truth, by abridgment of free speech, by repression of generous emotion, by insult and apology. "The patriotism of all classes," wrote Edward Everett, governor of Massachusetts, in a message to his legislature, "must be invoked to abstain from discussion, which by exasperating the master, can have no other effect than to render more oppressive the condition of the slave."

The students of Lane Seminary, Cincinnati, of which Dr. Lyman Beecher was the head, organized a nine days' solemn debate upon the whole question of slavery. Every conceivable point of view was presented with entire freedom. That the argument was thorough-going and lively may be gathered from the fact that the student body included students from slave states, some of whom were sons of slaveholders. One of the students was himself a slaveholder, and another, a colored student, had purchased his own freedom by the payment of a large sum of money which he had earned by hard labor. Immediate emancipation finally carried the day. The whole country took an interest in the affair, and the press attacked the seminary as a hotbed of abolition.

IT now appears that pacifism is destined to become as formidable an issue as abolition, and that pacifist societies as well as individual pacifists will share no kindlier fate than did the abolition societies o rthe abolitionists of William Lloyd Garrison's day.

One hundred and forty-seven students at Northwestern University, Evanston, gathered for a two days' solemn discussion of the existing social order as contrasted with a Christian social order. In the course of the discussions, thirty-eight students voted "that we, as individuals, refuse to participate in another war." Among those who so declared themselves were some who had fought in the World War, others who held commissions in the United States army, but who did not get into the war, and still others in training in the university R. O. T. C. The press promptly assailed the university as a hotbed of pacifism. The president and trustees were harried and threatened. The incident took on absurd proportions. It caused a national commotion.

I HAVE in my possession 236 newspaper clippings and editorials, 54 magazine articles and news items, 25 press photographs, and 14 cartoons, all relating to this youthful pacifist uprising and its developments. The headlines of the leading Chicago dailies are straws in the wind. They noisily announced Anti-War Meet Stirs Northwestern; Mob Student Pacifists in Evanston Cafe; Pacifists Hiss U. S. Flag; Charges Sedition Propaganda in Schools; Predicts Pacifist Movement Will Soon Sweep Youth of Nation; Pacifist Bomb Threat to President Scott; 5,000 Cheer N. U. Pledge to Uphold the Flag; Pacifist Mobbed at N. U; Legion Starts Drive to Get Rid of Pacifists; Pulpit Patriots Lash Pinks for Pacifist Creed.

The slogan of the age may change but the heart of the jingoist remains the some. "The little thirty-eight" were deluged with epithets and invectives. These students who had the courage of their convictions were made odious in the sight of their fellows. They were called "Platonic dreamers"; "delirious theorists"; "silly, lily-livered imbeciles"; "tepid slackers"; "spineless, pusillanimous pacifists"; "tools of Moscow"; "Trotzky cadets."

At first the newspaper editors were disposed to regard the happenings at Northwestern as only a matter of passing interest and to deal with them in a vein of mock-seriousness. One editor consoled his readers with these soothing words:

> A group of one hundred and forty-seven serious souls among the students of Northwestern University have held a two-day conference in a church and have given air to a number of solemn opinions which will occasion some solemn editorial sermons on what Northwestern is coming to. . . . Of course, this small minority of Northwestern's undergraduates are only displaying adolescent seriousness. They are children playing with theories over their heads. They utter old phrases with the fervent solemnity of a commencement day orator. What they think about war wouldn't have much effect if the country got into war. If the thirty-eight utter pacifists were all male, thirty-seven of them probably would be doing squads right soon after war was declared. One might hold to his present theory fanatically.

The editor of the college paper wrote more feelingly about these students:

> Many of our self-appointed priests of Internationalism are bucking the stream of the crowd by proving themselves to be a social evil and dangerous menace. The queer cosmos of the "martyr" makes him enjoy the "pain" of oppression. He feeds upon publicity. He is pleased to be hammered to the cross. If such is the case, we will let him starve, and we will not pound the nails. Too insignificant to be noticed; too vile to be touched; too abominable to speak of!

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But history does repeat itself. Those pacifist students continued to be noticed. What the editors supposed was an isolated phenomenon began to look like a part of a gigantic plot, masterfully conceived and subtly directed. Events were happening at measured intervals, not merely on one college campus but on many. Foreign influence was at work. These students, after all, were not "self-appointed priests of Internationalism." They were deluded dupes. They were duly ordained priests of Bolshevism. Skilfully and unwittingly they were being manoeuvered by the covered red hand of Moscow. The editors became thoroughly scared and warning editorials began to pour forth from the press of the country.

A month later the first editor mentioned turns from jesting and views events in Evanston as an ominous portent:

> The stormy pacifist meeting at the First Methodist Church of Evanston, Sunday night, when Brent Dow Allinson spoke, was not an isolated thing. It was one of many pacifist meetings which are being held throughout the country. It was part of a tremendously organized pacifist campaign which overnight has attained enormous strength and is endangering the future of the Republic. We say that this is an overnight development. There has long been a pacifist element in this country—a pacifist element composed in part of impractical idealists and in part of people who hate America and its institutions and who want to see a proletariat revolution. . . . It is time for the men of the country and for the women—the women who do not blind themselves to the facts of life—to organize a counter-offensive and stop pacifism before it makes further headway.

In their efforts to foment mob-terrorism, the editors were ably assisted by nimble-fingered, agile-minded cartoonists and by scheming, unscrupulous reporters.

THE challenge of the press was accepted and the counter-offensive launched. Judges, generals, lawyers, leading business men, bishops, presidents of various organizations loudly protested against the menace of pacifism, and demanded that the "mental defectives who are cluttering our ports and our colleges and who are tearing down America's intellectual standards, be weeded out."

Flags were unfurled to the morning breezes from many a porch-top. Service banners once more occupied their war-time positions in a number of churches. One Christian minister delivered a sermon in which, by a feat of legerdemain, he caused Pilate to play the role of "the Apostle of Pacifism."

A petition was circulated on the campus the concluding paragraph of which read:

> Therefore, we the undersigned hereby respectively petition that each and every student at Northwestern University be required to sign an oath or affirmation to read in substance as follows: I . . . . do hereby swear or affirm that I will faithfully uphold the Constitution of the United States and the laws enacted in pursuance thereto both in time of peace and in time of war.

Students were barred by university authorities from holding an anti-war meeting in a college hall. The university, piloted by the American Legion, which became the headquarters for full-fledged patriots, arranged a monster demonstration to purge itself of the poison. In this mass meeting, the president of the university exclaimed that "it is the duty of the university to convert them [these misguided students] by example and by precept." To make success doubly sure, he called on all student members of the R.O.T.C. and on all ex-service men and on the citizens of Evanston and of America "so to exercise their powers as citizens that this nation shall free itself from corruption and support only worthy causes."

Again history repeated itself. Again the patriotism of all classes was invoked to abtain from discussion. An instructor of history who remarked that we were experiencing a recrudescense of mediaevalism was vigorously rebuked. An eminent preacher who defended the right of freedom of speech was bitterly attacked. A social and religious worker of international prominence who publicly expressed sympathy with pacifist students, although he explicitly stated he did not share their views, was openly repudiated by an influential section of his own organization. Still others who spoke out in the interest of truth and fairplay found important engagements cancelled and heard doors of opportunity slammed.

The first casualty of war is truth. The press, having created a market for palatable, pacifist news, must keep the public freshly supplied. Incidents were either manufactured out of whole cloth, or done in pastel hues so vividly that they but slightly resembled the original. No single newspaper could boast of a monopoly on this profitable practice.

In flaring headlines across the top of the page of their morning paper, literally a half-million persons read: Mob Student Pacifists in Evanston Cafe. A full-page article described the incident under the head: Tomatoes and Eggs Break up Peace Meeting; Grid Stars Lead Campus Army Against War Opponents; Accept Bid to "Come In"; Circular Causes Rumpus; Surrender Even in Case of Invasion of U. S. Urged in Handbill.

What actually happened? About seventy-five persons, students, professors and townspeople—not all of them pacifists—assembled and quietly listened to a British conscientious objector relate his experiences during the recent war. The meeting adjourned in orderly fashion and the audience went home without annoyance. The meeting had not been publicly advertised, and the grid stars and the campus knew nothing about it until they read the newspaper account. Of the nineteen paragraphs composing the story only this one was true: "Barred from the campus (by the dean), Fletcher and the pacifist group went to the Wayside Grill and started their meeting there." The other eighteen paragraphs, excepting three, were wholly false; and the three had so little truth in them that they were entirely misleading. There was no display of eggs, tomatoes, bricks or physical activity.

A ruthless disregard for the facts is shown in the newspaper "write-ups" of the Allinson affair. According to one account—all were strikingly alike:

> Pacifism and patriotism were brought into such violent collision last night in the auditorium of the First Episcopal Church at Evanston that for two hours the assembly, consisting of several hundred men and women, was swept with an hysteria of rage. The American flag was cheered and hissed. Mention of "the Star Spangled Banner" was applauded and booed. The jeerers and booers appeared to have an overwhelming majority. . . Several times persons in the audience shouted out promises of taking physical violence upon others, and in at least one instance—at the doorway of the church—an advocate of patriotism attempted to break the neck of a pacifist proponent.

According to the facts, nothing of the kind occurred. Allinson, the speaker, born in Chicago and schooled both at the University of Chicago and at Harvard, was not

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"somewhat fussed, his German accent becoming more noticeable." There was no riot. There were no necks nearly broken. There were not even any incendiary or anarchistic remarks. The flag was not hissed. When two flags and a service banner were displayed from the rostrum, everyone respectfully rose and joined in singing America.

No eye-witness, however denied that the meeting was tense. The newspaper had advertised that a notorious conscientious objector was scheduled to speak on The German Youth Movement—not on Pacifism—and that the American Legion was making an effort to bar him from speaking. This news brought an expectant crowd to the church.

The protest was formally presented by a dozen Legionnaires. It was supported by a letter from the dean of the Northwestern Law School, addressed to and read by the pastor of the church. When the question was put to a vote, the decision was overwhelmingly in favor of hearing Allinson speak. When Allinson had done speaking and questions were permitted, he was cross-examined, not in respect to his subject, but in respect to his loyalty. The chief examiner later revealed himself to be an intelligence officer. At the conclusion of the long-drawn-out session, a self-appointed speaker leaped to the platform and demanded that, "If there are any Americans left in this crowd, I want them to stay and listen to a talk on 'Americanism'." This impertinence provoked hisses. Certain ill-considered statements in his impromptu speech also elicited boos and hisses.

War is on the agenda of the world's business. It is a "little piece of left-over wickedness" to which the present generation must attend. Men can no longer halt between two opinions, to want to abolish war on the one hand, and yet to prepare for it on the other. When the present epoch is recorded, every inhabitant of America will be judged by the words he uttered or neglected to utter on this question. If the past and the present can be relied on to illumine the path of the future, there will be a bit of rough traveling on the road to a warless world.

C. DeWitt Norton

Why Adult Education?

As far as can be observed, round about the country as a whole, we do not, at present, care to spend much of our energy in developing educational systems which will turn out the fewest possible numbers of "ad-ults"—that is, of complacent men and women who have no further capacity to learn. Rather, we seem to feel that such people make "good citizens" and that they are to be regarded as the "bright, particular stars" of our educational firmament. This is true not only in that legendary Middle West, which, according to reports current on Broadway, turns practically all its inhabitants into "ad-ults," or worse; it is specially true of such cosmopolitan cities as New York and Los Angeles, where the ideal of complacent subordination of mind to existent patterns is almost irresistible. That is to say, so far there is but the most incidental resistance to the general tendency to produce "adults" in our elementary, secondary and even collegiate education. We do not care to go back of the returns. Education is "Education," and it has to stand. We shall deal with the problem of the adult when we get to him: we shan't confuse the issue by mixing up the education of children and the education of adults. Millions for cures, but not one cent for prevention!

We have taken this work of developing our elementary and secondary schools very seriously, and we now have the "greatest system of education in the universe." Not only that, but there is almost no town of any size in America that cannot boast of having the largest and best system of schools of any town in its class; "and it is generally admitted, down at the capital, that we really belong in the next class above, only the jealousy of other towns keeps us out of our rights." This is not just sheer boasting. There is a quality of pathos about it. We have a tragic faith that if we can just get "education" working we can stave off most of the ills of our present social order, and give our children a better chance!

For the present, there is, of course, no way of breaking through this sincere and tragic belief in the magic of "education." Hence, we must deal with the problems growing out of the presence of large areas of ad-ult life directly: we must have some form of adult education to depend upon.

A number of conflicting, and even antagonistic, motives are at play in this field. Adults have been known since the beginning of time. It seems likely that there were adults before there were children—in the dim, distant morning of the race. And with the exception of a few glowing moments in the history of mankind, always these adults were ad-ults. Why then this rather sudden interest in adult education? There are at least three answers to this question, and these answers will be considered in some detail. The first answer is that "with the development of a much more extensive leisure, due to the shortening of the work day, the race is in danger of destroying itself."

The most ancient of human emotions is fear. Fear has had, in recent years, a hard battle with its opposite emotion, curiosity. In some parts of the world curiosity has won the battle, and fear is in a decline. But not in any large area; and nowhere completely. The human race gets a great deal of pleasure out of its fears, and has no intention of giving them up altogether. Just now, one of its most satisfactory fears is the fear that "unless something is done to educate people, their larger possession of leisure will destroy them and us!" What is at the basis of this fear?

We have long had people of leisure—even a leisure class. We have all sought leisure—for various purposes—including no purpose at all. We have no hesitancy in assuming that we, personally, would not be hindered, nor would we hinder others, by an extension of our own leisure. But, of course, we have the good of the community, of the human race, and of the world at heart. To what extent dare we assume that these others—who have long been subject to the iron discipline of long work days—will follow in our steps?

Evidently, we dare not too lightly assume any such thing. At least, warnings come from many quarters against any such too easy assumptions. Typical of this state of mind is the suggestion in a recent bulletin of the Detroit Public Schools, to the effect that since the eight hour day has now become the standard work day of the land, and since that fact makes for an enormous increase in the leisure time of the workers, the future of civilization depends upon the ways in which these released workers shall use this leisure. If they use it wisely, all will be well; if unwisely, all will be

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ill. And those of us who know how to use leisure wisely are responsible for helping to teach these workers the wisdom that we have. Hence, the need of adult education.

Our first motive, then, in this new and somewhat sudden activity is Fear. Of what, specifically, are we afraid?

Avowedly we are afraid of these released workers. But that is not the extent of our fears. (By "we" I mean that part of the community that is complacently ad-ult and anxious for nothing so much as the continuance of the *status quo,* or even the *status quo ante.*) We are afraid of workers who have leisure, of course. That is an ancient fear, though not a primitive one. It dates from the days of slavery and serfdom, and is a compensation for the injury the superior group inflicted upon the inferior, servile classes. We still enjoy that fear: it enables us to justify whatever we feel like undertaking in the way of limiting or repressing the working classes of today; and it urges upon us the necessity of "educating" the workers who are releasing themselves from the old serfdoms.

But there are other fears that gather about the worker and complicate this situation. Within the past forty years, the worker has been becoming, more and more, an "alien." Now fear of the alien is a much more fundamental fear than that which attaches itself to the worker. Fear of the alien is one of the most primitive of all our emotions. It is irrational, biological, not to be reasoned with, and only by the most severe efforts to be escaped. It is, of course, a very precious fear—for its obverse side is patriotism.

Now, an adult education motivated by fear of the alien tends to degenerate into some of the most objectionable forms of our not ancient Americanization programs. It operates in two directions: it tends to make the alien an object of disgust—which must be made over before it can be assimilated; and it tends to feed the superiority-complex of the worker in that field.

There is, however, another basic fear all the more difficult. That is the fear of Ideas. For some strange reason, many of these alien workers—who are the real objects of our fears—are suspected of having Ideas. Having ideas was once something of a virtue; and, even now, if the ideas are "the right kind" it is not an irreparable disgrace. But since 1914, the word idea has taken on something of a sinister meaning. Certainly, to the ad-ult American nothing more horrendous could be suggested than that his community sheltered one or more alien workers who are suspected of having ideas.

Fear of ideas is not as ancient a fear as are the others already discussed; neither is it, by the same token, as honorable. It has been responsible, within historic times, for some of the most stupid crimes. It has produced many martyrs, the first notable one being Socrates. The history of science is a long story of the fight against this fear of ideas.

At the recent meetings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, President Calvin Coolidge gave the assembled scientists his assurance that this old fear of ideas had disappeared from America—that the battle for the freedom of the mind had been quite won. Most of the scientists are still afraid of ideas; our patrioteers are still afraid of them; our leading industrialists repress ideas wherever they appear: and we are, almost all of us, ready to undertake a great program of adult education which will make sure that all workers, of alien race, who have ideas, shall be properly "ized"—subordinated to our folkway patterns of action, feeling and belief, before they are fully admitted to the leisure and the fellowship of our life.

There is one further group which fills us with fears, but as these are not—under present conditions, objects of adult education, we need not linger to discuss them. I refer, of course, to our children. They are handled much more effectively at an earlier stage—properly turned into ad-ults, as we have seen—our fear of them—a primitive fear—is satisfied and we are left free to attend to these other important parts of our educational task.

It is not here contended that all programs of adult education are motivated by these fears. Two other motives appear, as we shall see. These other motives are more intelligent and justifiable. It is here contended only that much of our discussion, at present, runs in the grooves of these old fears; and that the motives actuating all but the most intelligent leaders of adult education enterprises are of this more primitive sort. Nor is it contended here that fear is a useless human emotion. It is only contended that it a particularly primitive emotion; that it often becomes a particularly despicable emotion; and that it is capable of so rationalizing its manifestations as to "make Satan himself appear as an angel of light."

A nation-wide program of adult education may well turn out to be the most important step in human education ever undertaken—at least since the experiment in universal elementary education was first set up. But if that program is directed specifically at workers; or at alien workers; or at workers who have ideas; or at workers who now have an excess of leisure; or at alien workers who, because they now have an excess of leisure and therefore have more time to develop ideas—if for any one or more of these excuses such a program is undertaken, the result is likely to turn out to be disastrous. Education, often a blunt weapon, may become, does become, at times, a two-edged sword which cuts both ways. We must find a more rational basis than that of fear upon which to build our larger system of universal education.

J. K. H.

A Wisconsin Adventure

"IT IS NOT so easy to think as I had expected, but it does seem good to be around so many young people; life and action grip one," said Inga Olson, as she closed her text-book, and prepared to go to her swimming class.

Inga's little room in Chadbourne Hall, the girls' dormitory at the University of Wisconsin, was flooded with summer sunlight. Peace and quiet and beauty abode therein. Inga's former experiences with rooms had not been very happy. Previous to her coming to America she had lived in a Norwegian peasant's cottage, clean but filled with the confusion of poverty.

America later had not proved to be the fabled land where gold paved the streets, but a place where the unskilled were more desperately poor than they had been in the old country. The family, nine in number, lived in two rooms. Inga shared a bed with two younger sisters. Her days were spent amid the whir of flying belts and the swiftly moving machinery of a large, noisy factory. Hence, her room in Chadbourne was a veritable jewel box of peace and quiet and privacy to her.

Inga was one of eight girls in industry who had been

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chosen to attend the summer session of the University of Wisconsin in 1924. Their places in shop and factory were filled for the period of the summer session by regularly enrolled students of the university, who wished to get at first hand the worker's point of view, and at the same time to hold the jobs for the girls who were working hard at the unfamiliar task of studying.

The idea back of this adventurous experiment is stated in words taken from the announcement which went out in the spring:

> That some college women who have been spared much of life's drudgery may know in their own bodies and minds what it may mean to do manual work;
>
> That they may acquire concrete facts on which to base their study of industrial problems;
>
> That they may increase the number of college people who know and can cooperate with those in the industrial world.

The motive back of the experiment of entering industrial girls as students in the summer session of the university is the desire to increase their "living capacity," and to bring about mutual understanding and sympathy between student and industrial groups.

This is the great point of divergence between the Wisconsin plan and the Bryn Mawr plan. The Bryn Mawr summer school has not attempted this conscious aim of bringing worker and student together. The Bryn Mawr summer school is one in which workers study in the summer in order to be more effective in the cause of labor and to enrich their personal lives. Wisconsin plans to have students and workers meet at many an inn of friendship, and through the understanding which comes of mutual experience to bridge the growing gap between those who work with their hands and those who work with their heads alone. "There is a large group of people in America," said Professor Don Lescohier, of the department of economics of the University of Wisconsin, "who feel that there should be some alliance between Labor and the purely intellectual worker. We hope that the experiment at the university may act as a liason, to bring the two groups more closely together. It is only a beginning, of course."

It is interesting to note that upon the first presentation of the plan to the girls in industry in Madison, applications for permission to enter the group poured in. The number for the first summer was limited to eight. The problems to be met in handling students who were absolutely ignorant of even the most ordinary approaches to methods of study and academic contacts seemed almost insurmountable. The applications showed all grades of preparation. Some of the girls had not attained even the eighth grade; one had completed her high school course. The choice was a complicated matter because all of the girls were so eager for the opportunity. However, when the list was completed, it proved to be a very representative group. The girls possessed differing national characteristics; they were from different industrial groups; they had every variety of previous preparation: Two girls in housework, two business girls, two from a large manufacturing plant, a cafeteria worker, and one girl from a shoe factory.

The girls were notified of their selection, and at once began a short, informal course of preparation. Weekly meetings were held, at which some of the strongest men and women on the faculty spoke on a particular phase of university life. Professor John R. Commons explained the use of the library to the girls. Dean F. Louise Nardin spoke on Ideas and Ideals, and Professor Don Lescohier gave them a set of suggestions on "how to study."

This preparation was too general, however. It was found later that all of the girls needed specific instruction in elementary English, of the type given to sub-freshman groups.

When the girls selected their subjects, it became apparent that they wanted things not related to their lives. They wanted what everyone wants—an escape from reality. All of the girls elected English; two chose accounting; two, economics; and four, public speaking. They all participated in interpretative dancing and swimming.

In the whole group there was but one failure—and that was due to a language difficulty. The little Norwegian girl was unable to cope on paper with the difficulties of freshman English. The girls averaged 76 or 77—a remarkable showing for students without, for the most part, either the habit of study or any background of schooling beyond the eighth grade.

At the end of the six weeks of college work, seven of the girls returned to their old positions. But with what a different outlook! The eighth girl gave up her position, borrowed some money, and enrolled as a regular student in the university. The other seven are following up their English with night school courses.

The girls returned to their jobs at the end of the summer session filled with a divine dissatisfaction. They want to learn more, to read more, to interpret their lives in the light of wider knowledge and of wider experience.

These industrial girls have a great storehouse of concrete experiences to draw upon. The training given by the University of Wisconsin will teach them to draw upon this storehouse and to translate it into expression. They have earned the right to put life into words.

Next summer, the university will receive twenty-five industrial girls, who will enter all classes on the same basis as the other students. The economics department, however, will offer a required course especially adapted to their needs. The course will offer more concrete problems and less theory than the ordinary course in elementary economics.

If the demand for admittance continues, the regents of the university will be asked to provide funds to finance a Workers' College, to be maintained and organized just as the other colleges in the university are maintained. It will be put on a straight workers' education basis.

Dean F. Louise Nardin summed up the spirit back of the experiment when she said; "It is quite fitting that Wisconsin should do this. Wisconsin likes to face the facts as they exist, with fearlessness.... She likes to give when asked; but she likes better to give unasked through understanding. She likes to help her people to make life a gallant adventure."

LAURA F. GOSLING

A COMMITTEE APPOINTED by the state board of education of California to consider whether the teaching of evolution in the schools of that state was fundamentally offensive to good taste and good sense has reported to the board that such teaching as is now being done should offend no one. The committee included representatives of many creeds, as well as educators. Certain ministers who did not like some of the text books now in use in the schools had filed protests with the board, and the board, in order to determine the matter, appointed this investigating committee. Whether the report of the committee is to be regarded as victory or a defeat for the evolutionists does not appear.

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INDUSTRY

Black-Coats and Overalls

In the history of the British labor movement, the pendulum has always swung from political to industrial action and back again. A defeat at the polls has been followed by a period of heightened trade union activity, organization and strikes. With the coming in of a conservative government, therefore, interest shifts to what is astir in the economic field; and especially to how far the outstanding political innovation of the decade has its counterpart in the workshop. In the political field generals, lawyers, doctors, salaried workers have joined the Labour Party. In the industrial field, how far have teachers, civil servants, clerks, foremen, draughtsmen, engineers, chemists and the like made common cause with the trade unions? G. D. H. Cole, author of Workshop Organization, answers this question and shows its relation to the movement for workers' control.

WHAT the workers who demand an increasing share in industrial control are seeking is not the technical government of industry by mass meetings or even representative committees, but a change in the indwelling spirit of modern business organization. They want, though they would not put it so, to get rid of the "dualism" of modern industry, of the division of the productive forces into hostile groups, of the battle between the recognized authority of employers and their nominees and the unrecognized, but none the less real and operative, authority of trade unions. At the back of their minds is the distinct and sensible idea that the business of industry is efficient production of useful commodities, and that all the persons whose work is necessary for this production ought to be working together as one team, whereas they now waste much energy, and engender much inefficiency, by their constant bickerings and mutual distrust.

Keen and forward trade unionists have realized that "workers' control" implies an active collaboration of all grades of workers by hand and brain. Each man cannot have all techniques in his brain. But specialization means that each branch of technique is the special care of some man, or of some group. Workers' control implies the unity of all those groups on the basis of a common objective, and their working together for its accomplishment. In other words, it implies the extension of the idea of solidarity from the various groups of manual workers so as to include with them the various grades and classes of productive and commercial technicians. Along this road British trade unionism has been advancing, slowly and with many setbacks, since the war.

How far has an industrial fusion or alliance between manual workers and technicians been accomplished in Great Britain? About the time of the Armistice a movement towards independent organization among the salaried grades in industry and commerce, already noticeable during the war, took a great leap forward. Non-manual workers in many different callings began rapidly to organize, mostly in separate associations or trade unions of their own. Many professional associations, hitherto devoid of trade union characteristics, began to take shape as protective and bargaining societies in behalf of their members. A National Federation of Professional, Technical, Administrative and Supervisory Workers, of which I was the first president, was formed early in 1920. There was then an appearance of great activity among the non-manual workers.

The new movement advanced most rapidly among the non-industrial groups of employed professional workers. The civil service, hitherto weakly organized, became a net work of associations including almost everyone from the top to the bottom grades. But, while the higher paid civil servants organized and began the process of collective bargaining through the Civil Service Whitley Council, little community was established between the uppermost and the lower classes. The lower grades allied themselves, through the Labour Party, with the working class movement. The higher grades held aloof, were more anxious to form a professional institute for research and similar work than to further trade union objects. These grades were mainly instrumental in forming, also in 1920, the Institute of Public Administration.

The teaching profession, even more than the civil service, was swept into the movement. The teachers' associations, already relatively strong before the war, increased greatly in membership. This applies not only to the National Union of Teachers, which enrolls mainly teachers in the public elementary schools, but also to the associations of higher grade school and university teachers. Moreover, while all these teachers' bodies held aloof from any collective alliance with the trade union movement or the Labour Party, more and more teachers joined the party as individuals, and a strong collective drift towards labor set in, particularly as the National Union of Teachers, having established national scales of salaries for its members, found itself pushed into a strike policy in resisting attempted reductions in a number of areas.

The civil service and the teaching profession are both marked off sharply from industry proper by the fact that they are composed wholly, or almost wholly, of "black-coated" workers, so that, within their own services, the problem of the relation of their associations to those of the

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manual workers hardly arises. It is quite clear that this state of affairs is favorable to the growth of trade union action. The "black-coats" organize more readily in services in which they form a preponderant element, and are in a position to determine their own policy for the service as a whole, than where they form—however, important their work may be—only a small group among a large body of manual workers.

The chief exception to this rule is the railway service, in which not only the clerks but also a large proportion of the supervisory and technical workers are strongly organized. The Railway Clerks' Association, at first merely what its name implies, has during and since the war enrolled a large proportion of the station masters and supervising workers drawn from the indoor grades. The National Union of Railwaymen, which aims at being an "industrial" union for all sections, has similarly enrolled many supervisors drawn mainly from the outdoor grades. The great mass of such workers on the British railways are men promoted from either clerical or manual work, and, as the unions have grown strong and forced "recognition" from the railway companies, they have largely been able to retain the allegiance of their members even after their promotion to responsible posts. But even here the very highest grades remain aloof. They are, indeed, virtually the employers, with whom the unions negotiate nationally and locally in cross-table conference.

THIS problem will be found to arise wherever the organization of supervisors and technicians makes any considerable advance. Who is the employer and who the employed? Under modern industrial conditions, with the joint stock company or the municipality or the state department as the business unit, the real employer of labor is himself a salaried person. If he joins the union, and it undertakes to represent him, he will often have to negotiate with himself in a different capacity, and sit mentally on both sides of the table at the same time. I have a friend in the railway service who finds himself constantly in this position. I have even known cases where men had to correspond with themselves in two different capacities, brusquely refusing their own demands. Such Gilbertian situations are uncommon; but in some cases of local negotiation this problem has already become practically difficult. It has hardly arisen nationally as yet. But there is no doubt that it will arise in course of time.

It is, indeed, seen to be clearly inevitable if we examine the idea of "workers' control" which looms constantly behind the programs and manifestos of trade unions.

In so far as the "employer" is performing a valuable service in production or distribution, the trade union movement seeks necessarily to absorb him into its ranks. For how else can it transcend the characteristic dualism of modern industrial organization? But that this must come does not make the transition easy. It is not easy for minds on either side the industrial cleavage, habituated to fixed concepts, to grasp how a man may divide his substance so as to be at once an employer and a loyal member of the union whose demand he, as an employer, has to meet. But this is precisely what on the railways, in the civil service and the post office, and in a few other cases, men are already being compelled to do.

Trade unionism has advanced so far among railway workers largely because of the clearly marked differentiation of the industry and the semi-public status of the companies controlling it. The three railway unions despite some quarreling, habitually act together and are fully used to negotiation in common. Grievances of the supervisory and administrative grades are there presented as part of an all-grades program, and with the support of the main bodies of manual or clerical workers. No other industry has yet reached a similar stage of development. Indeed, in most of the productive industries, organization among the technical and supervisory workers is still in a very rudimentary stage.

ENGINEERING is generally recognized as the key industry of modern capitalist production. It is an industry of very highly developed technique, both productively and commercially, and it therefore gives employment to a large technical and administrative personnel. Among the workers it is probably the one among the greater industries in which "black-coat" trade unionism is most developed; but the distance so far travelled is comparatively small.

Before the war, the technical and other black-coated grades in the engineering industry were almost completely unorganized. During the war, and in the boom period immediately following the armistice, the Association of Engineering and Shipbuilding Draughtsmen, a weak little group before the war, grew to be an important body, including the great majority of the skilled men in this largest and most homogeneous of the technical grades. It was definitely a trade union, associating itself through the Trades Union Congress and directly with the unions of manual workers, and attempting to bargain collectively with the engineering and shipbuilding employers over questions of salaries and conditions of work. I say "attempting"; for, until 1923, the employers refused to recognize or meet the association, treating the draughtsmen as "staff" workers who had no right to combine or associate themselves with the wage-earning grades. Recognition could have been bought much sooner at the price of a pledge of dissociation from the manual workers; but this pledge the draughtsmen finally refused to give. At length, in 1923, the employers gave way, and recognized the association, which had proved its capacity to stand firm through the trade slump. Since then there has been collective negotiation on the draughtsmen's behalf, and the association has conducted strikes against firms which have refused to accept its standard conditions.

This is the most important advance yet made by trade unionism in industry proper into the sphere of technical organization. There is, indeed, another body which has made an attempt to organize other grades of engineering technicians, including men who occupy managerial posts. But this body, the Society of Technical Engineers, is very weak numerically, and is, in any case, only half a trade union; nor has it managed to secure from the employers as a body any recognition of its right to represent its members. A considerably more powerful body is the Electrical Power Engineers' Association, which works under an agreement with the Electrical Trades Union, representing the bulk of the skilled manual workers in the power stations. But this body too represents mainly the lower grades of technicians, of whom a certain number are also organized in the Electrical Trades Union.

Chemistry is, in these days, (*Continued on page* 614)

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The Worker at School

Miss Kingsbury's analysis of the effects of the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women Workers in Industry upon the subsequent life of the women who attended its courses is significant not only as indicating the intellectual quality of the students but also the ideal of workers education entertained by the faculty of a great college which has pioneered in this field. It raises the interesting questions as to whether so-called workers education can be effectively developed by colleges in detachment from industry, and whether the colleges, if they are to serve the industrial groups as they have served the learned professions, will not have to establish a working relationship with the factory similar to that which they have traditionally maintained with law, theology and pedagogy

WHAT becomes of the student who attends the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women Workers in Industry? Since the foundation of the school in 1921 this question has been asked again and again.

The Joint Administrative Committee, made up of representatives of the college and of women workers, believes that the success of the summer school can be measured only by the extent to which the students have learned to use the tools of study, and the extent to which they endeavor to continue to use them, although it realizes that the double demands of industry and of the family upon women must frequently become so exhausting as to preclude attendance upon classes or even the pursuit of reading. Therefore, the committee determined to attempt a measure of the summer's work by asking from the students of the summer of 1921, and of the second summer 1922, a report of the classes they had attended, the educational activities they had attempted and the reading they had done.

Only 36 per cent of the students replied to the questionnaire sent out by the committee, but 46 per cent of the class of 1922 answered, in comparison with 25 per cent of the class of 1921.

We cannot tell whether students were so busy with their work in classes that they neglected to fill out the schedule, or whether the students felt that the questionnaire was intended only for those who had been able to continue their study, or whether failure to reply was due to inertia.

And so we cannot really say that the replies received tell the story of effort for learning and for leadership on the part of all our students, or whether the wonderful record presented by those who did reply, namely, that 83 per cent had attended classes, is true of all the students. On the other hand, we cannot say that only 30 per cent were studying during the winter of 1922-23.

However, if only 30 per cent, or almost one out of every three students, went on with serious study, the record would not be bad. But it would not be good. The committee hopes that we shall have a fuller report during the present winter, especially as in 1922 the questionnaire was sent out early in the winter, before many of the classes had been organized. The committee believes that the fuller report will show a good record, and may even approach the most hopeful interpretation of the present returns, that four out of five students are studying in the winter.

The question may well be raised whether the attendance upon winter classes and the reading done was due to the stimulus and direction received in the Summer School. However, an analysis of the application blanks submitted for scholarships by these students tells two rather significant stories. First, fully three-fourths of the students had never attended any classes before coming to Bryn Mawr, or had attended classes only in elementary English or technical subjects (millinery, bookkeeping, typewriting). That is, only one-fourth of the students had ever taken classes in what we may call *adult subjects,* i. e., labor organization, economics, civics. And too, it must be remembered that evidence of study interest is one of the bases of award. Second, in the reading returns only 43 per cent of the reports showed even a mild interest in book-reading, and very few reported any extensive amount of reading during the years before attending the school.

On the other hand, the reading reported by about the same number was that of magazines, and many of these were of the less desirable type, to say the least! They followed closely upon the usual reading of the young employed woman and girl, as has been discovered in a special study under way now at Bryn Mawr College. This evidence shows that the effect of the summer school training is, on the whole, then, to face the students toward serious study and worth while reading.

Whether or not this 36 per cent of the students is representative of the intellectual efforts of the entire group, many significant things come out of the study of the fifty-two returns of those who attended classes. Perhaps the most significant of all is that, if we include those students who are doing full-time work, almost two-thirds (62 per cent) of this group of students had attended more than one class; but even omitting the full-timers, one-half of the rest had attended more than one class during the winter.

NUMBER OF CLASSES ATTENDED BY SUMMER STUDENTS, CLASSES 1921 AND 1922

Year Attending Summer School	Total Number of Responses	Total Number Attending No Class	Total Number Attending One or more classes
1921	20	1	19
1922	42	9	33
Unsigned	1	1	
Total	63	11	52

NUMBER OF STUDENTS ATTENDING

Year	One Class	Two Classes	Three Classes	Four Classes	Five Classes	Full Time
1921	9	1	3	2		4
1922	11	12	6	1	1	2
Total	20	13	9	3	1	6

The next most significant fact is this: all told, omitting the six who were regular day students, the 46 students attended 95 classes. Now, of these 95 classes, 71 or 66 per cent lasted for 10 weeks or over; 55 per cent were eight weeks and less than 16 weeks in length; 77 per cent ran from eight weeks to six months.

The other data which we have with regard to classes at-

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SUBJECTS OF CLASSES ATTENDED AND THE ORGANIZATIONS OFFERING CLASSES*

Organizer	Total	Per Cent	Bible	Business	Civics	Economics	English Writing	History	Law	Literature	Psychology	Sociology	Science	Varied Lectures
Y. W. C. A.	29	31	3			11	4	3	1		5			2
Clubs	8	8				1	1	4					2	
Labor Organizations	11	12				3	3	2		2	1			
City Public Schools	10	11		5			3							2
Summer School Students or Committee	7	7			1	1	2	1	1			1		
Universities or Colleges	16	17				2	10			2	2			
Business School	2	2		2										
Workers Education Bureau	4	4				2				2				
State	2	2				1					1			
Individuals	5	5				1	2			2				
Unknown	1						1							
Total	95	99	3	7	1	22	26	10	2	8	9	1	2	4

* Full time courses, attended by 6 students, are not included.

tended, as reported by the students, seems to be of value to the entire subject of workers' education. Twenty-three per cent of the classes were in economics, including courses on labor; 27 per cent were in English, English composition, public speaking and journalism (10 of these were reported as English and may therefore mean literature, but probably not). That is, 50 per cent of the courses were in economics and English. Seventy-seven per cent were in economics, English, literature, history and psychology. The number listed for literature is 8, history 10, and psychology 9. (See accompanying table.) We cannot tell whether this choice of subjects expresses the impulse of the school—probably it does, since these are the subjects offered in the school. On the other hand, it is true that the school is offering subjects which it has found to be demanded by workers. It is without doubt significant that only seven classes were in technical subjects, and all of these had to do with business; that is, our summer school students are concerning themselves with the problems of general education, the direct objective of the work at the summer school.

Where are our students able to find classes? Of the 95 only 10 are in the city public schools, and of these, half are in technical subjects and three in English; 29 classes, the largest group, were offered by the Y.W.C.A. Universities and labor organizations come second with 16 and 15 respectively. Organized clubs offered eight courses, which, combined with the Y. W. C. A., means that 37 out of the 95 were provided by private organizations interested in both educational and recreational opportunities for women. But it is encouraging to find that labor organizations offered 15 courses, and that 16 courses were conducted by a university or college. The summer school students or their committees are providing for seven classes. It is then to the Y. W. C. A., to labor organizations, to the universities or colleges, and to the organized clubs, rather than to the public schools that our students turned for further general instruction.

SUBJECTS OF CLASSES ATTENDED AND THE LENGTH OF THE CLASSES,* AS REPORTED BY STUDENTS OF THE CLASSES 1921 AND 1922.

Class	Total	Less than 8 weeks	8 weeks	10 weeks	12 weeks	14, 15 and 16 weeks	5 and 6 months	Over 6 months	Unknown
Bible	3	3							
Business	7		1				2		4
Civics and Government	1						1		
Economics	22	2	3	2	2	2	2	1	8
English writing and Speaking	26	2	5	1	1	7	3	2	5
History	10	1		1	1		1	1	5
Law	2			1			1		
Literature	8	1	2			1	1	1	2
Mathematics	1		1						
Psychology	9		2	2	1		3	1	
Sociology	1						1		
Science	2					2			
Spanish	1						1		
Varied Lectures	2	1				1			
Total	95	10	14	7	5	13	16	6	24

* Full time courses, attended by 6 students, are not included.

A number of questions in the schedule dealt with pedagogical problems, as for example: "Was the material of value?" "Did it meet your need?" "Did you learn enough to make it worth while?" And again: "Was there discussion by the workers?" "Did you do outside reading?" "Was there any written work?" "Did you have public speaking?" "Was the teaching clear?" "Did you feel that the instructor understood your experience?" "How could the course have been improved?" "What in your opinion makes a good course?"

Either our students are so eager for instruction that all classes seemed good to them, or the teaching was uniformly good, or, what is probably true, our students are not yet sufficiently discriminating to be helpful in a study of pedagogy.

The returns on the questions noted above, Nos. 1, 2 and 3 gave in each case not more than two in the negative.

As to methods used, the answers from many of the 52 students indicate what we may well consider good teaching.

36 students reported discussion in the class room,
6 students reported no discussion.
38 students reported doing outside reading,
10 students reported none.
17 students reported written work,
26 students reported none.
19 students reported public speaking,
10 students reported none.

Certain students made astute suggestions as to how the teaching might have been improved. Perhaps the keenest reply was, "If it could have been held at Bryn Mawr." But, seriously, these suggestions are worth noting: "More conferences;" "a good teacher and discussion in class;" "evening schools with instructors not on city payroll;" "simple language from instructor;" "more outside study, but cannot be done when you work ten hours a day" "concentrating on one subject" (this reply came from a student

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who had studied four subjects); "by class meeting oftener."

Following the same line, the answers to the question, "What in your opinion makes a good course?" are enlightening. Teachers in workers' classes may find helpful hints in the following comments:

Using same book, and each student taking turns in reading aloud... A course that gives a big, man-sized job, and sees that the student does it... Socratic method... A combination of theory and practice, and permission of discussion... To have some outline of the course... To have the subject matter presented truthfully and honestly, unbiased and not bigotted... Individual attention from the teacher—private tutoring—encouragement to read and think outside the class... When the students go for discussion and not for entertainment... One that teaches the student to think for herself logically... Exposition and discussion by class, with assigned reading and short paper of what had been read by student... Counsel adjusted to knowledge and experience of student... Courses I had in Bryn Mawr Summer School. Few others measure up... To arouse discussion but yet not to allow it to get away from subject . . . To give some home work or something to think about after each lesson . . .

Throughout there is an emphasis upon discussion. Finally there comes the pathetic appeal that "any course will be a good course that can keep your mind alert from seven to nine at night after having worked all day."

The second part of the questionnaire dealt with the activities which the student had undertaken as a result of her work at the Bryn Mawr Summer School, both educational and social. An encouraging report comes from 37 students with regard to the use of the city library, 27 students reporting that they were able to secure required books from the city library; eight had poor results; and only two stated that there was no library. The number of books which some of the students have read, and the titles, are astounding and moving. Thirty out of 52 students attending classes report outside reading in connection with their classes, and the answers range from the simple statement of "Yes" of 13 students, to lists of the books read. The estimate of amount of time spent, ranges from the statement, "A tremendous amount" to "Such reading as can be done on the cars to and from work;" one reports 6 hours a week, one 4 or 5, and one 3 or 4 hours; one reports biographical sketches and 6 dramas, and one 16 books; others write as follows:

History of England, History of the United States, This Freedom, Up Stream, Martin Eden, Joan and Peter, Pilgrim's Progress.

Economics, History, Literature.

Stevenson, Kipling, Scott, Conrad.

Literature, Economics, and Public Speaking.

Shakespeare, Eliot, Whitman.

Silas Marner, Strife, The Weavers, Principles of Labor Legislation.

Treasure Island, Macbeth, Merchant of Venice, A Midsummer Night's Dream, Leaves of Gras.

Whitman, George Eliot, Shakespeare, Browning.

But the largest amount of reading seems to have been done outside of the courses. Twenty-seven of the 51 students report independent reading. One student reports having read 50 books, another "about a book a day," and still another, 100 books, while the climax is reached by the student who reported "a tremendous amount" of reading connected with class work, and in answer to the question as to outside reading, finally simply wrote the one word, "Gosh!" Under this topic of independent reading, a few lists will afford interest:

Wells' Outline of History, *Van Loon's* History of Mankind.

Longfellow, Hugo, Tennyson, Hale, Stevenson, Conan Doyle, Shakespeare, Schreiner; also, Main Street, The Reincarnation of Brian Kent, The Call of the Clan, The Two Van Revels.

Articles in science and astronomy.

H. G. Wells, Marriage, Ann Veronica, Quo Vadis.

Adam Bede, Oliver Twist, Diary of Samuel Pepys, also some poetry.

Psychology, Nature Cure, Shakespeare, New Race, Eliot, Some Spanish Stories.

There was one other question which it must have been difficult to answer, and yet one the answers to which seem to show the spirit of service, the determination to be of value in the community, a sense of obligation to fellow-workers, an eagerness to help in the organized labor movement. One student has prepared a report on working conditions in Wisconsin hotels, in connection with the Consumers' League. The report has been printed in The Survey and is to be used in furthering legislative reform. Other statements come, showing participation in legislative efforts: in Ohio, "talks to industrial girls on minimum wage bill"; "am going to Columbus to help fight for the minimum wage bill"; and from Missouri, "have taken active part in the Legislative Committee of the League of Women Voters in St. Louis"; from California, "have served on minimum wage boards, talked at women's clubs, and am on Metropolitan Student Committee of the Y. W. C. A." One reports having "worked on women's eight-hour bill for about eight weeks in Illinois Legislature," and another, having "attempted to help with education program of Y. W. C. A." One student served on a committee in organizing a class, securing the instructors, and planning the tutorial period; she was chairman of the club.

The official positions reported include President of Industrial Federation; Shop Committee Chairman; Chairman of Industrial Women's Service Center; Official Agent of the New York League of Girls' Clubs, meeting with representative of workers' education; Financial Secretary of our union, covering 385 members; Member of Board of Trustees of Y. W. C. A., reporting each week to Board on laws before Legislature. Some students show the extent to which they have been stimulated by enumerating their membership in various organizations, as, for example, "I am a member of the Womens' City Club and of the Y. W. C. A."

The endeavor to estimate the value of the summer school work has brought all types of statements, some of little import, others significant, still others full of pathos: "I speak more freely at work and in clubs"; "Has helped in problems at the factory"; "I joined a gym class in order to learn how to mingle with other people, to be of them and not just a spectator"; "The Summer School has made me more interested in everything"; "An eye-opener to the world of history, science and literature"; "So far I have not been of much service, but have started to get an education in order to be of service at some time." And then comes the flat negative, "Not to any extent," and the statement, "I have no opportunity—or have not found it"; and finally, "So far no opportunity or situation has presented itself where I could be of any use. Not believing in unions, and still being able to see that the other side of the fence

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has just as many slivers in it, so to speak, leaves me in the middle of the road. However, I'm still hoping to find a niche where I can do something worthy of a Summer School student."

SUSAN M. KINGSBURY

Fruits of Cooperation

CLINTONDALE is a village—"just a little country place" the policeman at the main crossing in Newburgh calls it—a few miles west of Highland in Ulster County, New York, between the Shawangunks, a foothill range of the Catskills, and the Hudson River. For generations, as the elm-vaulted roads that separate its fields attest, its placid Dutch farmers have been growers of fruit—apples, pears, currants and grapes—which they sold as best they could, from their wagons or to grocers in Highland, Newburgh, New Paltz, and even across the river in Poughkeepsie. But with the coming of the railroad to the secluded dale conditions changed, the market became wider, more orchards were planted, and a greater crop grown, so that selling in distant city markets, especially New York, became a necessity. Of course, the farmers didn't go to market any more; it was too far, and the profit any one was able to make at any one time would scarcely have made the cost of a trip worth while. Buyers, representing New York produce distributing houses, came up to Clintondale from time to time. But the buyers were few compared to the number of fruit-growers near New York; they knew one another, got together, and arranged not to bid against each other. The consequence was that the farmers got what the buyers wanted to pay them, not what they wanted to get, and they never received more than just enough to keep them from going out of business, and often less. Then came the war with its high prices for food. The produce buyers, like all other merchants of those days, grew reckless and failed to haggle as closely as of old, so that the farmers felt prosperous and thought that all of their troubles were over for good. The same mysterious forces that so long had kept them poor in money, in their usual inscrutable way, were now making them rich.

There was, however, one in Clintondale who was not kept so busy in the fields among the trees as the rest of the men: Walter J. Margraf, a native, employed by the Central New England Railway as station agent. He was in a position to see the comings and the goings of the buyers, and to hear their conversation upon their arrival before they went out among the growers and while they waited for their trains afterward. Being a naturally alert man he soon saw their collusion, realized how it thrived on the dispersion and separation of the farmers, and recognized its identity with the hitherto unfathomable power that kept prices down. Also he saw the remedy—to meet unity with unity.

The problem then was how to unite to any effect. Mr. Margraf disclosed his views to a few of his intimates, and after some discussion they agreed: unity was the thing to better their condition. But there would have to be more than mere unity of will to gain at least an equal position with the buyers in the bargaining game, for the farmers were pitting apples and such like, which will rot—quickly in summer—against money, which won't. The only answer was to cause the apples not to rot.

Then came the war and its good times, and the farmers, who the world around are "from Missouri," were so contented that it would have been useless to launch any plan for improvement. No one could see any need. But the war ended, and none knew what was going to happen. Mr. Margraf noticed an almost immediate change in the manner of the buyers. At once they were their usual shrewd selves. It was apparent that the old situation was coming back.

A man like Margraf loves a fight, when there is an ideal behind it. He called together those who had previously agreed on the advisability of unison, and pointed out the immediate necessity of its adoption if disaster to the district was to be avoided. In February, 1919, the first little meeting was held. Early in May of the same year the Clintondale Fruit Growers' Cooperative Association had been legally incorporated with fifty charter members and ground for the construction of a cold-storage warehouse had been broken.

Margraf gave up his place as station agent and was chosen general manager of its plant by the cooperative. The association was organized under Article 13A of the Membership Corporations Law of the State of New York, according to which it can issue no stock and can make no profit. What surplus it may make over and above expenses of operation and funding of its debts must be distributed pro rata each year among all, except dealers, who have sold or bought commodities through it.

To raise funds for construction and operation was a difficult problem. There was little liquid money among the members. The plans for the warehouse, drawn by a western New York expert, together with the necessary land next to the railroad, called for an investment of $175,000.

Each member of the association was, and new members still are, required to deliver to the directors a personal note for five hundred dollars. By depositing these notes in nearby banks as collateral for loans and by selling first and second mortgage six per cent bonds to those members who would take them, a hundred thousand was secured. Good-will toward the success of the enterprise among the local tradesmen made them willing to accept the association's own notes for the other seventy-five.

All has so far proceeded successfully. The building was erected in time to handle the 1919 crop. The cold-storage machinery was installed. The power for it is bought from the Central Hudson Power and Light Company, whose high tension wires cross the country from the generating falls in the mountains to the cities along the river not a mile from the Clintondale warehouse. The engineering crew was trained from local men, and soon became very capable.

The 1919 crop was handled with much satisfaction all around. None of the fifty members dealt separately with buyers. All trading was through the association at the warehouse, where the buyer could see for himself that the grower did not have to sell at once or lose his crop. At first the buyers were a little nonplussed. They mentioned, gently, circumspectly, "considerations" to Mr. Margraf.

The Clintondale association is most fortunate, however, in the caliber of the man who organized it, and whom it employed to manage its business. Margraf's soul is in his work. He loves his home country and his neighbors. His pay is enough to enable him and his wife to have a decent and comfortable living. A spare, hard, straight-gazing little man, he is of the bluff type that loves honesty and hates

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underhandedness. The produce buyers soon discovered that there was no flaw in the armor the farmers had built. They found themselves forced to listen to, rather than to dictate terms. The consequence was that the farmers sold and the agents bought at a fair price. Against the farmers forcing it above a fair level the buyers, as well as the ultimate consuming public, are protected by the fact that Clintondale represents such an infinitesimal part of the production in the various fruits it handles. Monopoly price-fixing in any agricultural product in this country is beyond the power of any organization, but the elimination of graft and useless profits is not.

In 1919 the growers not only got a better price than ever for their crops, but their association made a considerable amount of money. Three per cent commission is charged by the cooperative on all purchases and sales made through it, and there are regular rates on storage in the warehouse. These are the main revenues of the association.

The initial success of the association brought many new patrons to it, so that now it has one hundred and thirty-one actual members, with their notes controlled by the cooperative. It has a waiting list of about a hundred, and it is the selling agency for over seventy-five per cent of the fruit growers of the district, which extends for ten miles in all directions from Clintondale station.

In six growing seasons the association has been able to buy back the whole $75,000 worth of its notes payable, to meet the interest on its mortgages, to buy in some of its members' notes that were serving as collateral, to meet its running expenses fully, and to buy very cheaply a run-down crate and basket factory three miles away at Lloyd. This subsidary, with some improvements, broke even in its first year. It can hardly fail to make money hereafter.

Financially, the future of the Clintondale cooperative is bright. Without any improvement in its methods or enlargement of its scope, it is but a matter of a few years before the association will be entirely free of debt and its assets will be owned by its members, having become their property at no cost, in the meanwhile having been the instrument of their making more money than they ever did before. After all its debts are paid the law permits the cooperative to begin the creation of a surplus and to distribute what other money it makes to purchasers and sellers alike according to the amount of their trade in the year.

The government of the association is very simple. Each member has one vote. Any ten may cause a meeting to be held. The actual business is in the hands of nine directors in three annual classes, from whom a president, vice-president, secretary, and treasurer are chosen. The directors are empowered to employ a general manager, who may be anyone—member, director or outsider. The treasurer controls all funds. By a sufficient majority the directors may remove any officer, and likewise the association may expel any member. This system has proven very efficient. The manager has had a free hand in carrying out the details of administration, but is in such close touch with the members on whose confidence his position depends that he is entirely unable to act counter to the interests of the organization.

In spite of itself, the cooperative is forced to keep in very intimate and human touch with its members. They come to look to it for all sorts of aid and advice not relevant to its main purpose, and since its only hold on them is by rendering service and maintaining good-will it has to be of help in every difficulty that it can: mechanical, legal, or what not. It is no uncommon occurence for a farmer to complain that some implement is out of order and that the town mechanic wants an exorbitant fee to repair it. Usually the engineer of the cooperative can fix it at no cost to the farmer and a trifling expenditure of gasoline to the association—and a friend has been won or more firmly bound. Kindliness on the part of the management has been a big factor in the success of the cooperative, both with its patrons and its employes. The fifteen people who work in the warehouse and the twenty in the crate factory are contented, happy and loyal to their job, and their spirit is reflected in their demeanor as they go about their work and in the spick-and-span appearance of the premises.

For the future much is planned by the association and Mr. Margraf. He and his co-workers realize, however, the necessity of proceeding cautiously. Farmers are too busy on their jobs readily to absorb new ideas; they must educate themselves gradually to each new step.

As to expansion in numbers, it is the intention to set the limit at three hundred. That would include all the farmers for ten miles around, beyond which distance contact would be difficult. Besides, as numbers increase, the individual importance of each member diminishes; excessive numbers tend to chill the feeling of individual interest and responsibility which is the life of cooperation. If farmers further afield wish to have similar benefits it is felt that they should form their own organizations, with which the Clintondale association would gladly affiliate.

In widening its activities the most important project that appears at present is the establishment of graded brands, so that sales can be made in greater bulk and more expeditiously. Now each man's crop keeps its identity and is sold for him at the price he is willing to accept. In grapes and currants there has, nevertheless, been pooling.

In a small way, the Clintondale cooperative has been a purchasing agent of supplies for its patrons. It maintains all the gasoline pumps, fourteen, in the district. It buys all farm implements on order. The time is approaching, however, when it will be necessary to open a hardware store. A general consumers' cooperative store is a distant possibility. Care is being exercised not to arouse the antagonism of the existing merchants, some of whom are farmers too, or are related to farmers. Opportunity must be seized where and when it presents itself. There can be no success if issues are forced. There can be no price-cutting. This would at once arouse active opposition to any selling operations the cooperative might undertake. The regular prices must be charged, and the surplus distributed pro rata at the end of the year.

The Clintondale Fruit Growers' Cooperative Association is most fortunate in its geographical situation, ease of communication with its market, and the suitability of soil, climate and moisture to the economical growing of fruit.

The career of Walter Margraf and his fellow-cooperators suggests that, in the field of real cooperation, America still affords unlimited opportunities for the play of individual initiative, while it gives substance to the hope that cooperation can be of material service to farmers, when it is founded on proved principles and competently administered.

EDWARD A. NORMAN

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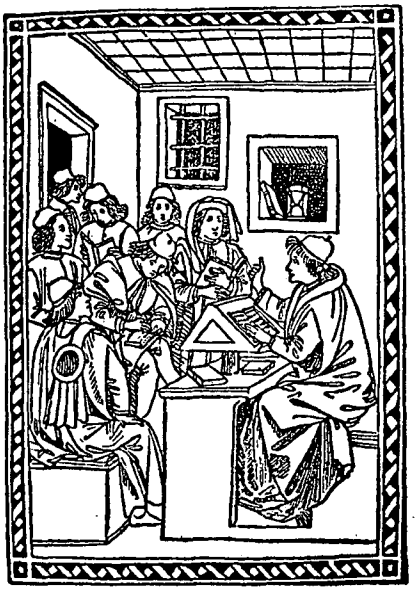

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Books in Our Alcove

A Monthly Department Edited by Leon Whipple

THE Carnegie Foundations should be experts on the diffusion of knowledge. They have studied the problem in both university and library. Now they offer us an unofficial memorandum of their conclusions and hopes in a thin, graciously printed volume, The American Public Library and the Diffusion of Knowledge by William S. Learned.* Here is an exposition of one of the moving dreams of our age—the dream that we can consciously better and enlarge the lives of men by our mastery of communication. The dream is told with scholarly reserve, but with eager and open-minded enthusiasm. The little essay on the Diffusion of Knowledge we choose for a text this month because it so brilliantly states a problem, and outlines an answer, but you must read also the studies of the library as a practical agent for the diffusion of knowledge, of modern library progress, of the values and uses of the American Library Association, and of Mr. Carnegie's own philosophy of libraries, and the results achieved from his gifts.

The Carnegie Foundation believes in intelligence as by nature, it must. Next, it believes "our American society is on the verge of a much more thoroughgoing organization of its intelligence service than has hitherto been attempted." Third, this intelligence service, if intelligent, must be primarily, though not exclusively, for adults, who Mr. Learned easily shows have been blindly neglected by our present educational designs. Last, and practically, the instrument for the diffusion of the knowledge we need will be "a community intelligence service . . . a center as familiar as the local post-office, and as inevitably patronized, not only for "polite" literature, but for every vocational and educational field of information." Here mechanics will consult technical books and journals; merchants find catalogs (and dare we say, credit ratings?); clergymen, the best works on religion; motorists, the latest road maps and guides; artists, both technical works and collections of pictures. In short, an institution that will put into perfect practice the familiar injunction: "Ask Mr. Foster."

The library will be the nucleus, but more important than the books will be a staff, not of librarians, but of specialized personal service aids and expert teachers, to interest people in ideas, to help them plan courses of reading and research, and to answer their problems of an intellectual nature. These aids will have to be supermen; for the qualities essential are defined as "personal tact, quick intellectual sympathies and appreciation, a thorough knowledge of a certain field of material, precision and discrimination of thought and the power promptly to organize results." This is not a man, but a synthesis, an intellectual Robot; and we wonder whether they will be pithless and pale as some librarians are now.

But Mr. Learned's academic categories are incidental. Why, he asks, should we provide a high school with perhaps two score trained teachers for some hundreds of girls and boys, yet provide nothing at all for the stimulation and direction of intellectual life in the several thousand adults of the same community? Literature and history, for example, are cultural fields of life-long interest. One need not be in a school to pursue them; he needs only the help and inspiration that a real intelligence center of the sort described might offer.

Such a center, again, could save much of the appalling waste of intellect now found in mechanical occupations or

* *Harcourt, Brace & Co. 89 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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due to enforced idleness. Book centers already do such things: one farmer had his wife read over ninety books out loud to him in one year—while he milked the cows! The unemployed could be directed in profitable reading while waiting for a job (and after); the convalescent could be both amused and educated; the inmate of jails might find relief from vicious idleness; sailors on long voyages, even the very policemen and firmen, would have given them whatever mental pabulum they were able to digest.

But books be not all of knowledge. The center, Mr. Learned continues, can be a center of lectures, moving-pictures, museums, and the fine arts, the non-print sources of knowledge. The American passion for lectures would be satisfied, "provided it did not degenerate into incoherent dilettantism." The intelligence staff and university faculties could give real courses that got somewhere. The museums would not be "useless, but almost indestructible accumulations from indiscriminate donors," but collections expressing a living idea—a process of manufacture, an age in history, a procession of natural science. The motion picture, now neglected as a means of knowledge because of its commercial exploitation, would offer both education and fine entertainment, free from vulgarity, indecency and trite sensationalism, because it would be under community criticism, and associated with the other high intellectual interests. The fine arts have, as the author points out, already found place in many municipal programs, thanks to "the steadily advancing popular education, to a reaction from materialistic preoccupations of pioneer days, and to increasing contacts with Europe." They need no defense as ways of promoting human understanding through fine emotional experience, but they do need to be drawn into relation with the other gifts of knowledge, each helping the other in a genuine community institute of all the arts and sciences.

It is perhaps graceless to find fault with so painstaking an outline of a way of spreading sweetness and light, but I had an uneasy feeling that Mr. Learned is a bit too intellectual to understand the queer paths by which men in the street achieve knowledge. For example, his third method of diffusing knowledge is by "news"—the flood of ephemeral print from which each selects certain facts to orient his daily life. Here is the main instrument of diffusing whatever printed knowledge most people ever get, yet it is dismissed in a paragraph as something for commercial enterprise and competition, with its "qualitative bedlam of ideas." The movies too are admitted to be in bondage to commerce. Yet nothing is suggested to be done about it. The radio is recognized as a perhaps revolutionary way of spreading knowledge, yet again there is no suggestion that if we bestirred ourselves now while its habits are forming we might bend it to serve fine social purposes, instead of later bewailing its vassalage to commercial exploitation. A foundation faced with a revolution ought to do something revolutionary, say, like giving a million dollars to preserve the radio as a means of diffusing knowledge rather than jazz. There is a hint of side-stepping some of the most serious problems in favor of those more readily susceptible of academic treatment.

But the arousing nature of sentence after sentence, and the actual fact that much of Mr. Learned's dream has been put into piece-meal practice by our present libraries makes us very grateful for his idealism, and very hopeful that we shall yet find a way to harness intelligence for universal service.

L. W.

Cinderella Goes to a Party

CZECHOSLOVAKIA, *A Survey of Economic and Social Conditions, by Joseph Gruber. Macmillan. 256 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THERE was a time when the Czechs referred to their homeland as The Cinderella Among Nations. Then the great Slav majority in the Austro-Hungarian monarchy was subordinated to a minority centered in Vienna whence under Hapsburg misrule it exploited the races it governed.

The war changed all that. How it did it, and how the Czechoslovaks have reacted to their combined responsibility and opportunity is told in this volume edited by the professor of economics at the University of Prague. It is a most complete and illuminating symposium by nineteen of the new republic's experts in such fields as agriculture, land reform, natural resources, industries, foreign trade, government finance and banking, social welfare. Nowhere else is there available in English so comprehensive and up to date a summing up of what has been achieved and what is being accomplished in this Slav island in Western Europe. It is not a stringing together of dreams and "glittering generalities," but actual demonstrable facts and figures.

The remarkable thing about the whole process of the establishment of the six year old republic is the early consolidation of the country, politically, industrially, financially and socially into a working unit which has served to steady Central Europe.

The new republic of Czechoslovakia was scarcely founded (October 28, 1918) when it unanimously passed on December 19, 1918 a law establishing the eight hour day. Because of the advanced standard of popular culture, social legislation in Czechoslovakia despite the repercussions of the Russian social revolution and of the collapse of militarist Germany—proceeded in a peaceful way without any violent upheavals.

Characteristically, the government was the first of the new states of Europe to put a constitution into force. Included in its provisions was the establishment of a ministry of social welfare which at once set about providing government aid to the unemployed, care of war sufferers and social insurance. The first social welfare measures adopted December 10, 1918 when the republic was exactly one month and twenty days old have been supplemented by progressive laws, providing increase of pensions, preventive medical care, insurance of wage workers and certain classes of independent workers, the extension of supervision of child labor to include the protection of illegitimate children and children under the care of strangers, juvenile courts modeled on those in the United States, housing relief and protection of tenants.

Agrarian reform is being carried out on an evolutionary and constructive basis, without any economic or social upheavals, and promises to become one of the chief mainstays of the liberated country.

This volume proves that Thomas Masaryk wrote with vision when he declared that "The Czech humanitarian ideal is no romantic fallacy. It demands that we shall everywhere and systematically oppose ourselves to all that is bad, to all social *un*humanity."

SARKA B. HRBKOVA
Foreign Language Information Service, New York

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Inheritance of Effects of Environmental Conditions

ON the inheritance of environmental effects, no one in the world has experimented so extensively as Dr. Paul Kammerer. His fourteen year's intensive study demonstrates, he believes, that environmental effects are indeed inherited; in other words that they reappear in later generations without the action of the conditions that were in earlier generations required for producing them. The characteristics of the body so affect the germ cells that the latter, when freed, tend to produce anew those characteristics. The salamander that becomes yellow on a yellow background, yields descendants that become yellow even in the absence of a yellow background. The germ cell that is in a yellow body produces *in consequence of that fact* a new body that is yellow. And this sort of thing is general in organisms. If substantiated, no conclusion in biology could be more important.

In his new book Kammerer, though under the heavy handicap of a style that obviously simply writes German sentences into English words, these latter at times so ill-chosen as almost to conceal his meaning—gives on the whole a clear, satisfactory, well-illustrated account of the salient features of his own work and that of others, that have led to the conclusion set forth above; together with a discussion of criticisms and opposing evidence. If taken at its face value, the affirmative presentation makes a rather overwhelming impression. In the absence, hitherto, of an adequate compendium of the evidence, few have realized how strong a case can be made, at least formally, for the inheritance of environmental effects.

If all Kammerer's factual results be accepted, they meet and overcome most or all of the objections urged against such inheritance. (1) The objection that lies in citation of negative instances and the call for positive ones is met by detailed accounts of colors, structures, "instincts," reactions to particular agents, in various animals (mainly amphibia), all altered by changed environment. This alteration becomes cumulative as time and generations pass; and the descendants, even when developed without the changed conditions, show for some generations the altered characteristics—the inheritance lasting longer in proportion to the time that the changed condition had endured. (2) The objection that this is not "real" inheritance is formally met by showing that in crosses the new characteristics behave in the typical Mendelian manner. (3) What has appeared a conclusive objection to any effect of the body on the germ cells such as to cause the latter to reproduce in later generations these bodily characteristics, has been drawn from two sources: (a) In all breeding it is found that the dominant bodily characters do not affect the contained germinal materials with in later generations produce recessive characters, (b) transplantation of germ cells bearing certain characters to a body bearing other characters has not, in numerous cases, resulted in changing what those germ cells shall produce. This seemingly decisive objection is formally met and disarmed by Kammerer's own experiments in transplanting germ cells in the salamander. If transplanted to bodies having differing *newly accquired* characters, these latter are impressed on the germ cells; if to bodies with differing *old* characters, the germ cells are unaffected. Since all previous experiments, both in routine breeding and in transplantation were made with old characteristics, they do not touch the decisive point.

This transplantation experiment (with its *a priori* highly improbable result) is the keystone of Kammerer's edifice. If it be accepted his chief conclusions appear unavoidable. A similar statement might perhaps be made as to his experiment with the ascidian *Ciona,* which Kammerer himself calls crucial. These appear quite insusceptible of the explanation that they are due to some form of unconscious selection by the experimenter—an explanation that appears possible for many of the other observations.

Are Kammerer's factual results to be accepted at their face value? In his original papers Kammerer's results are presented with the traditional German detail and thoroughness; they give the impression of sound careful work. They are vouched for by the head of the institution where he worked, the Vienna Biological Institute—by Dr. Prizbram, a scientist of high reputation. Redoubtable assaults have been made by some men of high standing on certain points in his work. In a number of cases, at least, the resulting controversies have led to the complete discomfiture of his critics; as in the important case of the ascidian experiments, and in that of Bateson's intemperate attack on Kammerer's results with the midwife toad. Here Bateson made but a sorry figure. Certain discrepancies between the details of his work on color changes and those observed by a later investigator are as yet not cleared up. But no criticism discrediting an essential aspect of his work has yet been made to stick.

Though this is true, it is also true that *in no case has the crucial point, the actual inheritance of the enviromental effects, yet been tested by anyone else,* so as to be either confirmed or refuted. Most of the experiments require years, and Kammerer has had too long a start. His essential results and conclusions rest therefore entirely upon his single authority.

It is commonly felt, I believe, by those at work in genetics that so great a revolution in prevailing ideas as the acceptance of his results would bring constitutes too great a weight for one man's authority. This feeling is accentuated in the present case by certain more or less extraneous facts. In his recent lecture trip through the United States, Kammerer employed methods of advertising, and a sensationalism of statement, that seemed to many ill-compatible with scientific reliability. Similar qualities appear in his recent books, including the present one. Opponents who do not accept the inheritance of environmental effects are charged with being political reactionaries anxious to block progress. In the chapters not devoted to accounts of experiments, sweeping declamatory assertions abound. General theorizing of a confused and sometimes self-destructive nature characterizes some of the later chapters. All these things do not tend to increase confidence in the author's judgment as applied to a field of investigation that has shown itself most difficult and deceptive.

Judgment then, it is felt, must be suspended until there is corroboration or refutation of Kammerer's work by others. But for many reasons such corroboration or refutation should not be delayed. On the one hand, his conclusions have a tremendous bearing on practice in all work with living things, including man. If they are correct, this should be known before more time is lost in applying them. On the other hand, this book is bound to arouse the adherents of its doc-

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trine, who will draw therefrom practical conclusions; if the doctrine is wrong its ghost should be laid at once. Finally, if the man is right in his work, he should receive the Nobel Prize and be given every opportunity to continue his researchs, instead of being left to seek a precarious livelihood through sensational lectures and books. One of our great foundations, or some private individual, could not make a better use of resources than to see that his work is thoroughly tested. Kammerer's "crucial experiment" with the ascidian could be corroborated or refuted by comparatively small outlay of time and money, through sending one or two reliable, unprejudiced investigators to Naples for a year or two. This would go far in telling us whether Kammerer's work can be relied on and it should by all means be done.

H. S. JENNINGS

Johns Hopkins University

THE INHERITANCE OF ACQUIRED CHARACTERISTICS, *by Paul Kammerer. Translated by Paul Maerker-Branden. Boni & Liveright.* 414 *pp. Price* $4.50 *postpaid of The Survey.*

Tarts and Comfits

ANATOLE FRANCE was an ironist—even about himself. His father was a bookseller, but his acquaintance with the literary world led him to object strenuously to his son's ambitions to become a writer. Later, the famous Anatole came to agree, especially after he had been elected to the French Academy, as these words, quoted in The Living Age, show:

"The poor man had the idea—rather queer for a bookseller—that the business of writing books was disgraceful and dangerous; but selling them, not at all! Where, pray, did writing them lead you? To prison or the almshouse. And, *mon Dieu,* the poor man was right. It led me to the Academy."

LIKE the Italian *Pagliacci* players who tour the country in a cart, the Carolina Playmakers have been traveling throughout the South, from Atlanta to Miami. But with a difference, for they Ford their scenery, and themselves travel in a big white passenger bus, equipped with a smoker and a compartment for hand luggage, and decorated with Playmaker masks and banners. The actors, all students at the University of North Carolina, have written, mounted, and produced their plays under the direction of Professor Frederick H. Koch. Many of the plays deal with the mountain folk, legendary themes, etc., so that they offer a rich treasury of indigenous literature. The best of them have been collected and published by Henry Holt and Company, in two separate volumes, the second having come out this past fall.

LIBRARIANS luckily don't have to read all the magazines they subscribe for. Even the most distinguished member of the highest "quality" group must look to them much like a raw potato to a chef—something to be made useful and interesting and nourishing for others. Their selection of magazines is, therefore, an expert opinion of much concern to the reading public.

In the American Library Association's pamphlet, Periodicals for the Small Library, edited by Frank K. Walter, librarian of the University of Minnesota, The First Fifteen includes none of the magazines usually called popular, and of the special periodicals there are only two for women and three on science. The Survey is not there. But in the lists for schools it is one among twenty-two, for normal schools one of fifteen. And in the association's Selected List of Periodicals it is given a crisp "character":

Discusses all kinds of movements, public and private, whose purpose is social improvement. Aggressive, but constructive. Sympathetic toward labor, but inclined to give both sides of unsettled questions and not at all anti-capitalistic. Very widely used for club work, by high school debaters and special social workers. Formerly called Charities Review and Charities and the Commons. The illustrated *Survey Graphic* monthly number is included in a regular subscription ($5.00) or may be obtained separately for $3.00 yearly.

Pleasant as all this is, it conceals some middle-aged shivers. For linking up The Survey with its grandpa, The Charities Review, gives us a birth date in 1891 and an uneasy feeling that even an editor of the Book Review Department should not jump blithely into print without reading up the family history in some fifty volumes.

LIBRARY Work with Children, in a new and completely revised edition, by Clara Whitehill Hunt of the Brooklyn Public Library, has just been issued by the American Library Association, Chicago. It is a thirty-page pamphlet discussing ways and means of directing children's reading and taking up also some physical problems encountered in every children's room. It is issued as Manual of Library Economy Number 29 (25 Cents).

Two new lists of children's books have also appeared recently from A.L.A. headquarters. Children's Books for General Reading is a basic list of 275 books for a children's library. The list was selected for the Children's Librarians' Section of the A.L.A. by Effie L. Power of the Cleveland Public Library. (Single copy 20 Cents—special prices in quantity.) Gifts for Children's Book Shelves is an annotated list of 200 books selected for the purpose of helping parents choose suitable books for children. (Five Cents.)

Labor from the Life

LABOR ATTITUDES AND PROBLEMS, *By Willard E. Atkins and Harold D. Lasswell. Prentice Hall, Inc.* 520 *pp. Price* $5.00 *postpaid of The Survey.*

A FORMIDABLE barrier to the open-minded discussion and understanding of organized labor and the labor movement as a living force in America has been a certain timidity upon the part of writers on the subject, due, no doubt, to the general unsympathetic atmosphere in which trade unions have come into being. This timidity has led interpreters and historians to take refuge in what might fairly be called labor archaeology—the documentary and other monuments of a day that is dead. Where they have dealt with the forms, policies, and activities of contemporary and labor organizations, they have generally limited themselves to specific and picturesque examples of labor unrest such as strikes, sabotage, or the rebellious raids of untypical groups such as the casuals of the forest and wheat fields. They have as a rule shied away from the portrayal of labor as labor lives and thinks and struggles and aspires in the world about us, lest they suffer the penalties of unorthodoxy with labor itself.

Atkins and Lasswell have had the courage to break through this barrier, with the result that their volume is both vivid and illuminating. They have been at pains to make the reader realize that the attitudes and activities of labor are

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normal expressions of normal human beings under particular circumstances. This determination to make the reader see the workers as simply human, rather than as either heroes or devils, has led them to stretch their definition of a worker to a point where it is in danger of losing its value as a definition. To say that the "workers are all those who are supposed, and commonly considered by the community as a whole, to be workers," is to come perilously near to disregarding the specific characteristic of the wage workers' status in modern society out of which the characteristic labor movement of our time arises. But this is a fault in the right direction for the purposes the authors have in mind, namely to destroy rigid and prejudiced stereotypes and to supplant them with a sympathetic and scientific curiosity about the infinitely various millions who in factory, field, forest and mine do the work which enables the rest of us to live.

The authors approach working group attitudes through six chapters that deal skilfully and sympathetically with the life that goes on in coal mines, steel mills, agriculture and the clothing industry, and with casual laborers and unskilled women operatives. These chapters are written with the eye on the real thing. One leaves them with a feeling that one has brushed arms with the miners and steel workers at the face of the coal or the mouth of the furnace. They lift the book out of the ruck in which so many text books flounder. These introductory chapters are followed by solid but not "highbrow" discussions of the major problems that have grown out of the character of work and life in machine industry—such as those of the labor market, industrial accident and disease, old age, unemployment, minimum wage, and others. The sections of the book devoted to The Struggle for a Status—which includes the correlative Employers' Activities—and to The Assertion of Public Interests follow the labor movement out of the workshop into the broad field of general life and place it in just perspective so that the every reader can see it relation to himself as a member of the community.

Obviously intended for use as a text in high schools and colleges, Labor Attitudes and Problems should find an eager audience outside of the classroom. It is not only informative but also good reading—a quality not too frequently encountered in books in this field. R. W. B.

THE RUN OF THE SHELVES

Books are listed here as received. Many of those mentioned by name only in the classified sections below will be reviewed later.

Education, Ethics and Sociology

OUTLINES OF INTRODUCTORY SOCIOLOGY, *Readings in Social Science, by Clarence Marsh Case. Harcourt, Brace & Co. 980 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

HERE IS the most considerable effort yet attempted to include the whole range of introductory sociology within the limits of a single volume of selected "readings." A good many valid arguments can be marshalled against such books of readings; but all such arguments apply with less force against this book than most. The selections have been made with great care; they illustrate actual situations and tendencies; each is, essentially, a unit in itself and worth reading and study on its own

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This book, now available to the readers of this magazine and their families, is—

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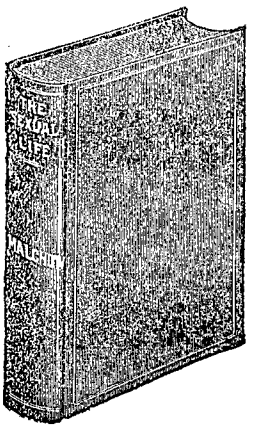

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account; and each is adequately supported by numerous bibliographical references. Of course, in the hands of a dull teacher, this book can become as much of an obstacle to understanding as other such books have been under like circumstances. But in the hands of a live teacher, there is no reason why this book should not help to initiate the student into the wealth of interest, material and understanding that have, in recent years, been gathering into the fold of sociology.

J. K. H.

THE EDUCATION OF HANDICAPPED CHILDREN, *by J. E. Wallace Wallin, Ph.D. Houghton Mifflin Co. 349 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*
FOUNDATIONS OF PERSONALITY, *by Abraham Myerson, M.D. Little, Brown & Co. 406 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE PRE-SCHOOL CHILD, *by Arnold Gesell, Ph.D., M.D. Houghton Mifflin Co. 264 pp. Price $1.90 postpaid of The Survey.*
POLITICAL ACTION, *by Seba Eldridge. Lippincott Series in Sociology. 382 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
EDUCATIONAL JOTTINGS ABROAD, *by Raymond Walters. The Science Press. 85 pp. Price 85c. postpaid of The Survey.*
CODES OF ETHICS, *A Handbook, by Edgar L. Heermance. Free Press Printing Co. 520 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
SKILL IN WORK AND PLAY, *by T. H. Pear, M.A., B.Sc. E. P. Dutton & Co. 107 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE RURAL HOME, *Proceedings of Sixth Natl. Country Life Conference, by American Country Life Assn. Univ. of Chicago Press. 246 pp. Price $2.00 of The Survey.*
RACES, NATIONS AND CLASSES, *by Herbert Adolphus Miller, Ph.D. Lippincott. 196 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
ETHICS, *Origin and Development, by Prince Kropotkin. The Dial Press. 349 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Industry and Economics

THE WORKER IN MODERN ECONOMIC SOCIETY, *by Paul H. Douglas, Curtice N. Hitchcock and Willard E. Atkins. University of Chicago Press. 948 pp. Price $4.65 postpaid of The Survey.*

OF its kind, this volume is excellent. The selections out of which it is made are authoritative and so arranged as to give the appearance at least of organic unity. But after all, books like this, made up of fragments of books into which men have put the thought of a life time, bear much the same relation to a library that pied type in a print-shop bear to a poem. They are short cuts to education, aids to lazy teaching or overworked teachers, destroyers of consecutive thinking and the instinct of workmanship. Teachers, particularly in high schools and colleges inadequately equipped with libraries, are coming increasingly to rely upon each volume of selections. To us they seem as little likely to develop a capacity for individual research and individual thinking as a book of quotations is likely to develop a capacity for literary workmanship. For our own part we should much prefer to place in the hands of students a single essay by Paul H. Douglas, Curtice N. Hitchcock or Willard E. Atkins than these *membra disjecta* of a multitude of economic masterpieces.

R. B.

STATISTICAL METHOD, *by Harry Jerome. Harper & Brothers. 395 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

INTENDED primarily as a textbook for students of economics and sociology, this work gives the social worker simply and comprehensively all he needs to know of statistical method—except in cases of particularly complicated problems when expert counsel is desirable anyhow. The only qualifications for handling figures that are taken for granted are an average education, a little imagination, intellectual honesty, capacity for careful work and, of course, knowledge of the subject matter. Social workers are a little tired of the claims made sometimes for the infallibility of statistics when they know that certain things, though "proved" by figures, aren't so. They are still more tired of efforts to give a quasi-scientific appearance to investigations by statistical charts when they know that the heart of the matter cannot be expressed in means and averages and the like. Let them take heart; here is a book that shows exactly what can be done with the aid of mathematics in the investigation and presentation of social facts, and what cannot be done. Enlightenment starts with an explanation of the process of "sampling," perhaps the most frequent of statistical tasks for

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the social inquirer when confronted by large areas of fact. It proceeds to tabular and graphic presentation, incidentally discouraging the use of pictograms but telling how to prepare a bar chart, a circle chart and the more complicated visual aids to the grasping of figures. Ten chapters are devoted to statistical analysis, including such necessities as index numbers, cycles and correlations. Admirably sane and helpful is a chapter on how to get your hare before you cook it: the obtaining of statistical data. Whatever is not in the text, in the way of useful hints, is in the appendices.

SUPERPOWER, *compiled by Lemar T. Beman. H. W. Wilson Co. 89 pp. Price 90c. postpaid of The Survey.*
THE WOMEN'S GARMENT WORKERS, *by Louis Levine, Ph.D. B. W. Huebsch, Inc. 608 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE LABOR MOVEMENT IN THE SHOE INDUSTRY, *by Augusta Emilie Galster, Ph.D. Ronald Press Co. 237 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Foreign and International Affairs

GREATER FRANCE IN AFRICA, *by William M. Sloane. Scribner's 293 pp. Price $3.00, postpaid of The Survey.*

MR. SLOANE writes as a guest of the French Government and could only in courtesy return the gracious Gallic courtesy which he received in abundance. Few nations know so well as the French how to dispense official courtesy graciously. The author is not blind to the limitations which official hospitality places upon him. Yet in his sincere admiration for the French he carries this responsibility lightly and throws up his hands in proper amazement when he meets a French captain who "had a lingering fondness for Germany." French imperialism in Africa becomes the spirit of a wise and kind Western administrator. Oppression, extirpation of natives, are words only mentioned after a courtly bow to the author's hosts. France, he tells us, was generous and noble at the Algeciras conference in 1906, yet she made permanent a precarious hold on Morocco; again generous and noble at the recent Tangier conference, yet she had nothing to lose. France is out to win in Africa, for her future as a great power lies there. No longer must we think of a France of 45 million with a declining birthrate, but of France with a population of a hundred million. Mr. Sloane tells us cheerfully that France can call no "fewer than 280,000 dark-skinned men to the colors every year," after having announced that, "dark-skinned peoples vastly outnumber the fair-skinned and if force is to rule, the former may become lords of the earth." Is it noble work to train 280,000 every year? Mr. Sloane's unofficial observations are often charming though spoiled at times by a flowery style. He has an eye for beauty in native architecture and gives a good picture of natural beauty as well.

ALPHA BUSE

HISTORY OF THE PHILIPPINES, *by David P. Barrows, Ph.D. World Book Co. 406 pp. Price $1.60 postpaid of The Survey.*
ALFONSO XIII UNMASKED, *by Vivente Blasco Ibanez. E. P. Dutton & Co. 121 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

Other Books Received

THE HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY, *by Major William A. Ganoe. D. Appleton & Co. 609 pp. Price $5.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
CAUSES OF THE CIVIL WAR, *by Admiral French Ensor Chadwick. Harper & Bros. 372 pp. Price $2.25 postpaid of The Survey.*
MISFORTUNES OF ELPHIN CROCHET CASTLE, *by Thomas Love Peacock. Oxford Univ. Press, American Br. 282 pp. Price 80c. postpaid of The Survey.*
THE BOYS' OWN BOOK OF FRONTIERSMEN, *by Albert Britt. Macmillan Co. 224 pp. Price $1.75 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE EVOLUTION OF AMERICAN POLITICAL PARTIES, *by Edgar E. Robinson. 382 pp. Price $4.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE $250 CROSS WORD PUZZLE BOOK. *The Stratford Co. 63 pp. Price 35c. postpaid of The Survey.*
DEBATERS' MANUAL, *compiled by Edith M. Phelps. H. W. Wilson Co. 206 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
FETTERS OF FREEDOM, *by Frances Greddington. Small, Maynard & Co. 383 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*
COWBOYS NORTH AND SOUTH, *by Will James. Charles Scribner's Sons. 217 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE SHAKESPEAREAN ENIGMA AND AN ELIZABETHAN MANIA, *by John F. Forbis. American Library Service. 337 pp. $4.50 postpaid of The Survey.*
THE FREEMAN BOOK. *B. W. Huebsch, Inc. 394 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

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COMMUNICATIONS

More About Blind Alleys

To the Editor: Miss Kawin brings together into one picture all the fundamental shortcomings, problems and difficulties of our modern industrial system, but is she right in laying them all at the feet of vocational guidance? Her definite counts against vocational guidance are: (1) "Vocational guidance should answer this question but vocational guidance has hardly even heard of it." (Namely, which are to be the outlets for those capacities which the factories and shops and offices cannot use). "One does not find in the vocational movement itself any systematic effort to include in the program of guidance consideration of even such limited hours of leisure as young workers now have, much less any concerted effort to establish the short-working-day plan."

2) "Here and there one finds an exceptionally progressive vocational organization trying to give a lecture or a study course that will acquaint young people with the economic background and structure of the present industrial system but, for the most part, practical vocational guidance has not been allowed so much as to rub elbows with shop committees, trade unions or any other experiment in workers' participation."

(3) "Unfortunately, the challenging spirit of the early days of the movement gave way to a general acceptance of industry *as it is.*"

(4) "Modern social science is evolving new techniques for changing fundamental attitudes and habits, ways of reacting to life. Thus far vocational guidance has scarcely dipped beneath the surface in this realm of possibilities.

To summarize: Vocational guidance has not secured shorter working hours nor provided for use of the slight leisure which workers now have. It has not been active in helping workers in securing a share in the management and profits of industry. It accepts industry as it is. It has made small progress in social science, pure or applied.

Miss Kawin's last three paragraphs concede that "Efforts to supply this lack in education (namely, helping the student understand himself) are beginning to be evident in the rapid (?) development of personnel work in colleges and universities." Also, "Some vocational organizations have this process of job analysis fairly well under way by now."

The fundamental point is this: the term *vocational guidance* has no common connotation. Miss Kawin herself uses it as parallel with *personnel work* of which it is but one factor. In regard to one thing there is, however, common agreement. Vocational guidance is concerned essentially with the *individual* rather than with the more generic approach to problems of industrial management, of the use of leisure, of the development of social science. All of these and much more (for example the vital problems of education) are of burning concern to vocational guidance but it is struggling with the immensely practical task of helping the individual, given the conditions of his inheritance, environment, education, personality, to make what Miss Kawin calls "one of the supreme adjustments which life demands of human beings," a satisfactory adjustment to work. In making this adjustment vocational guidance cannot first abate the evils of a mechanized industry, secure greater leisure, provide more participation in management and the rest, for the individual at hand must be adjusted to the work of the world *today,* in such a manner, to be sure, as to provide the best possible chance for self-expression in his work and for making in his experience a bit of contribution toward improving existing conditions.

To a solution of industrial problems and to social science vocational guidance will have much fundamental material to contribute from its close knowledge of human experience. For the most hopeful outlook for a modified industry in the future Miss Kawin herself refers to the point of view expressed by a leader in the vocational guidance movement, Helen T. Woolley. And certainly all vocational workers eagerly greet every contribution toward a better understanding of human nature, of social and economic laws—all developments in the infant social sciences.

Miss Kawin's doubts and estimates of psychological tests are identical with those constantly voiced by vocational workers. Her conclusion, "My own experience and observation have convinced me that no one can tell another person what kind of work he ought to do, but we can *help him to find out* what kinds of work he is fitted for and wants to do" is the conclusion of all honest vocational workers. They agree, too, that "continuous investigations of industry and analyses of jobs must be carried on to gather data about occupations" and are doing it with increasing seriousness. As a result they are not letting "Mary" worry on as a dictaphone operator with the delusion that only a college graduate can get "an interesting secretarial job" these days.

One does not so much disagree with the content of Miss Kawin's article but one wonders about her attitude; why, in an ultimate analysis, is she disgruntled with vocational guidance? She concludes: "The goal should be not vocational guidance but *educational guidance*—guidance for living, in which vocational information and counseling play an important part." One role only rather than the whole drama after all?

Beatrice Doerschuk

Assistant Director Bureau of Vocational Information, New York.

Give a Thought to the Personnel

To the Editor: I had the pleasure of listening to Mr. Chapin read to the Family Division of the Minnesota State Conference of Social Work the paper published in The Survey for December 15, 1924 under the title, Some Thoughts on Our Social Machinery. At that time, his rather sweeping commission to family agencies, urging on them a peculiar responsibility for the problem of over-organization (so-called), came as a logical conclusion to a stimulating address. It is a bit difficult, however, to accept without question the implication of *sole* responsibility of family agencies that its publication in The Survey suggests. Unquestionably any case work agency ought to apply to fundamental community problems the same approach that it seeks to use for individuals' problems. Case work that does not do so is itself a sterile thing. But just as only a small part of the case work with individuals could or should be undertaken by the professional social workers in any community, so the family agency, or, to be exact its officers, board of directors, and staff can have no monopoly in "understanding the community situation" or in attempting "a reorganization of the inner life of thought and emotion of those persons who persist in overorganizing the community and dissociating its traditions." The logic of Mr. Chapin's article suggests the council of social agencies as the proper reference for this group of clients.

But should over-organization as an outstanding problem of social work today be considered apart from the work itself and the people doing it? And isn't much of the over-organization itself due to the quality of leadership? Admitting that

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a cardinal sin of social workers of all kinds professional and volunteer, is the undertaking of responsibility without due regard to the limitations referred to in the article, it still remains true that the complexities of modern life do create problems of social adjustment as Mr. Chapin so entertainingly points out in the first portion of his article. Probably these will increase also with the growth of professional knowledge and skill. Certainly they will change. And the most intelligent community case work will be needed to adapt the machinery both appropriately and economically. But we are pretty much alive to these dangers. The contributors are seeing to that and are crowding things a bit, largely because of another need. I refer to the lack of enough social workers, both trained and volunteer, to do what plainly needs to be done under whatever scheme of organization may be advisable. Until social agencies give as serious thought, singly and cooperatively, to the problems of personnel (including the recruiting of an enthusiastic lay membership), as they do to administrative rearrangements, the pressure for economy will have full sway. Not only more contributors but more people intelligently interested in social work and competent to do it is a need deserving consideration with the problem of better coordinating the efforts of those now enlisted.

The number of individual contributors has been greatly increased during the past ten years—a period devoted primarily to the problem of integrating the organization of social work. Has there been commensurate progress in improving the quality of the work done, in finding and training people to do it, and in developing informed constituencies for the various kinds of work done?

DAVID H. HOLBROOK

Executive Secretary,
American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, New York

A Massachusetts View of the Child Labor Amendment

TO THE EDITOR: The occasion of my writing you is the article Child Labor—The New Alignment by William L. Chenery.

I am neither a politician nor a manufacturer. I am simply an individual with an enthusiasm for combatting evil; which inclination has caused the activities of a long life aligned with reform causes. Some of their organizations favor the Child Labor Amendment; but I am one of many individual members who believe it should be fought against as a measure that would bring more harm than good. In brief, the reason for this stand is that for the sake of righting the wrongs of a small proportion of the children of the present time, that are being gradually eliminated by the states, Congress would be given unlimited permanent control over all children of the United States, so long as the federal government should exist. With state laws, we, the parents can control legislation; if the amendment is ratified the control is passed into the hands of congressmen for all generations.

Massachusetts legislature recommended the enactment of the first child labor law in this country. Mr. Chenery says, "The manufacturers of Massachusetts were strong enough to prevent the passage of this law in 1825," and yet today Massachusetts has the best child labor law in the country; and Mr. Chenery admits that "much desirable legislation has been enacted by the states."

Since public opinion has caused the change from opposition to the first child labor law, to the giving Massachusetts a well-nigh faultless one, and having only three states with objectionable ones (which are gradually being improved) a federal control is needless.

Mr. Chenery says—as do all advocates of the amendment—that it "prohibits nothing. It is merely a grant of power." Its ratification would "give the Congress less power than the states already possess"; but *"the operation of state laws shall be suspended to the extent necessary to give effect to legislation enacted by Congress."* State laws are directed at specific abuses. The amendment carries no restraining limitations. It is not safe to put future family affairs into the hands of future congressmen, and say—as is asserted by the amendment advocates—"Of course they would use common sense." Do the present ones always do it? Why give them an unlimited power which we wish them to refrain from using to its full extent?

Mr. Chenery says, "It is interesting to note, in connection with Mr. Lee's argument, that none of the evils he fears were realized when the first Federal Child Labor Law was in force." The first law continued two years. The second federal law continued three years. The result in these short periods, that were not long enough to let the new law get into real practice, cannot be considered as proving what would be the consequence of a permanent condition. Herein is shown the difference between the conscientious advocates of this amendment, and its conscientious opponents.

The first take a near view, the last take a far look into the future. The first see only the present wrongs of the children; the last see not only these present wrongs, but the rights of all children in the years to come.

As Mr. Chenery says, "The realities of the question have been ignored"—"and the argument has been confused by the injection of the question of communism" completely obscuring "the realities of what is actually a very simple question." The matter of its being pushed by Russian socialists, or not, has nothing to do with the merits of the amendment itself; though it surely is a step toward their style of government. The main objections to it are being lost sight of (whether by the deliberate planning of some of its advocates, or not) in stress being laid on this Russian influence question.

The points against it are that it is unnecessary because its object is being accomplished in a better way; and that it would not only infringe on our own rights, but would irretrievably defraud future citizens of their rights.

ELIZABETH MORTON MORLEY

Newton Centre, Mass.

Thinking About Education

TO THE EDITOR: In your issue of October 15, under the above heading, exception is taken by your educational editor to a statement of mine in the June number of the Educational Review. Doubtless you are entitled to believe as you see fit on the matter of school discipline and the obedience due to teachers. But is it fair to quote my words in a way that somewhat twists their meaning by omission of context; and is it fair still further to twist their meaning by a more or less flippant comment? Let me say that I do not think that there was any deliberate attempt to twist the meaning; but that the effect was produced nevertheless.

Your editor asks "why teachers, etc. should not receive the same sort of respect and obedience which the city policeman receives from the populace of the city." In answer, I should be very glad if we teachers got even that degree of respect, much less the higher degree which I have indicated, in the quotation which you give, as desirable.

My position is that public-school teachers are charged with a very definite responsibility for the educational work which they are commissioned to do; and that, in country and city alike, they are entitled to that degree of respect and obedience which is necessary for them to carry out the duties for which they are appointed. A somewhat varied experience in educational work has shown me that, almost without exception, they are not allowed to do their work; that any whim of any parent or any anarchical action of any child counts for more than the teachers' duty. In a certain suburban town where I was principal, I found that the (*Continued on page* 619)

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Black Coats and Overalls

(*Continued from page* 599)

an integral part of the productive technique of the metal industries, and several attempts have been made, with indifferent success, to organize the chemists engaged in industrial establishments. Between them the British Association of Chemists and the National Association of Industrial Chemists organized only a few thousand workers during the boom; and many of these have fallen away during the trade depression. There is now only the bare nucleus of organization in this section.

A few chemists, and a good many technicians of very various callings, are enrolled in the National Union of Scientific Workers, one of the more important of the war-time trade unions formed among the salariat. The nucleus of this body is formed of research workers, employed either by private firms or by Government establishments such as the National Physical Laboratory, or in universities and technical colleges and schools. Major Church, D.S.O., the general secretary of this union, sat in the last Parliament as a Labour member, and the union, while collectively it has still no politics, shows marked Labour tendencies.

The distinctively clerical and administrative workers, as distinguished from technicians, in the engineering and kindred industries are still very largely unorganized. A certain number, more than before the war, belong to the National Union of Clerks, which has recently absorbed a separate society—the Shipbuilding, Engineering and Steel Commercial Staffs' Association—formed specifically to organize the office staffs and business administrators of the great firms in the metal industries. This body never had more than about two thousand members, and it is doubtful if more than a thousand among the many thousands of clerks and administrators employed in engineering and metal works are now organized at all.

The chief remaining group is that of the supervisory workers, including foremen and certain types of under-managers and departmental superintendents. The engineering employers have always firmly refused to recognize any form of trade unionism among these grades, on the plea that combination, and especially any sort of alliance with the unions of manual workers, is inconsistent with the foreman's loyalty to the firm and with his duty as an agent of the firm's disciplinary measures. Nevertheless, many foremen used, even before the war, secretly to maintain their membership in the trade union to which they had belonged before their promotion, though these unions were no longer able to negotiate on their behalf or act as trade protection societies. The employers, objecting to such retention of membership, had organized the Foremen's Mutual Benefit Society on an anti-union basis. On joining this body, a man had to sign a declaration which pledged him not to belong to a trade union, and many employers forced their men to join the "Mutual" and sign the original pledge. I have talked with many foremen who had signed this pledge under duress, but did not hold themselves bound by the undertaking.

During the war, a good many groups of foremen tried to form independent organizations of their own, and gradually three well-defined foremen's trade unions emerged. The most important of these is the National Foremen's Association, which is confined to the engineering and shipbuilding trades, and works under an agreement with the other unions in Scotland and the north of England. The National Foremen's Association has only about two thousand members, and is not recognized by the employers in the engineering industry, though it is recognized by the railway companies as representing foremen in the railway locomotive shops. It is a real trade union, following ordinary trade union methods. It is a condition of membership that a foreman must belong also to the union of the craft from which he was promoted, and

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the association has negotiated working agreements with most of these craft unions. When the manual workers strike, the organized foremen do not as a rule leave the shop; but they guarantee not to 'blackleg' by undertaking any work that would normally be done by a man who is on strike. The National Foremen's Association belongs to the Trades Union Congress, and is thus definitely linked up with the working-class movement as a whole. Small as it is, it may be the nucleus for a much larger and more important organization of the supervising grades.

MOST of the bodies described above work to a considerable extent together. Many of them belong to the National Federation of Professional Workers, in which they rub shoulders with men from the railways, the civil service and from other productive industries. They have also among themselves, for the metal industries alone, a Staff Workers' Alliance, which is an important agency for purposes of organization and propaganda. In common with the trade union world, they have lost ground and been reduced largely to quiescence during the trade slump. But they have held together and survived, despite confident predictions, made by trade unionists as well as by employers, of their speedy disappearance after the ending of the post-war boom and the vanishing of the militant spirit which was its accompaniment. They enroll, it is true, chiefly technicians and 'black-coats' who are little better paid than the skilled manual workers. But it is only to be expected that non-manual trade unionism should make a beginning at the lower end of the professional ladder.

In no other productive industry has organization among professional workers made even as much headway as in the engineering group. There are various foremen's societies in other industries, and in the mines, besides the deputy overmen, the under-managers have organized on trade union lines and joined the Trades Union Congress. The Mine Managers' Association, on the other hand, holds itself carefully aloof.

The professional institutes of civil, mechanical, mining, electrical and other types of engineers, which are principally concerned with the question of professional qualifications and the issuing of certificates of competence, are powerful bodies; but they are in no sense trade unions, and have shown no tendency to adopt trade union methods—still less to ally themselves in any way with the unions of manual workers. The better paid technicians of industry remain corporately as far as ever from an alliance of workers by hand and brain, though a considerable number of individuals in these professions have given their political allegiance to the Labour Party. Employers and salaried technicians are too much intermingled, and the position of the consultant technician is too different from that of the employed technician to encourage any strong development along trade union lines. In short, the Labour Movement has attracted to itself large sections of the professional world who, like teachers, civil servants, and railway officials, are virtually in the position of wage-earners, though their wage is called a salary and paid under rather different conditions. It has thus paved the way towards a further advance; but it has so far done little to bring in the better paid salary-earners, and nothing at all to secure the economic adhesion of the very large classes of technicians and professionals who work, not for a salary, but for a fee. Clearly, the existing personnel of the trade unions falls far short of what is needed in order to realize the dream of 'workers' control' and the supersession of 'industrial dualism' by a team spirit animating every grade.

Is such a spirit possible, and what are the means of evoking it? That is the most vital of all the industrial questions of today.

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SOCIAL WORK SHOPTALK

IN THESE halycon days of Nordicism the least that men and organizations of good sense and good will can do is to avoid even the appearance of emphasis on racial differences. In line with this tendency the League of Foreign Born Citizens, in New York, announces that it has renamed itself the League for American Citizenship.

NEW Readers of The Survey who saw William L. Chenery's article on the new child labor alignment in the January Graphic, and older readers (who recall his service as associate editor for industry in 1920-21) will be interested to learn of his appointment as editor of Colliers. Mr. Chenery has been associate editor of the New York Globe and managing editor of the New York Sun and Telegram-Mail, not to mention his association with the New York Herald, the Chicago Herald, the Chicago Evening Post, and the Rocky Mountain News. He is the author of Industry and Human Welfare, and the editor of Ideals of America and Standards of Child Welfare.

THE RED CROSS is in a period of mutation again. The first of the personnel changes to be announced in the reorganization consequent on the abandonment of the division organization is the appointment of William Carl Hunt and William M. Baxter, formerly division managers at San Francisco and St. Louis, to be assistants to the vice-chairmen and to remain in charge of the branch offices which will replace the division headquarters in these cities. Other changes are in process. Meanwhile the Red Cross Courier has been transformed into a semi-monthly with a format new to that journal but agreeably reminiscent of another to which modesty forbids our further reference, and the Junior Red Cross News, which has been addressed to the elementary school members of the Junior organization has acquired a new companion named High School Service, prepared especially to further the work and the attitude of the Junior Red Cross in secondary schools. Judging by the E. W. Kemble drawings in the first number of the new magazine, one of which we borbow, it is not going to limit itself to sober altrusim.

COMMUNITY CHEST migrations of varied sorts are reported by the American Association for Community Organization. The office of the Welfare Federation of the Oranges has just been transferred to the Metcalf Memorial Building, erected to serve as a central office building for the social agencies of the Oranges. Oscar Kuolt, service secretary of the Rochester Community Fund has become executive secretary of the Council of Social Agencies which, after long gestation, has finally achieved nativity in the same city. Harry M. Carey goes from the Duluth Community Fund to Wilkes-Barre to replace Sherman Conrad whose removal to New Orleans was recently noted here. Stacy Bowing, publicity director for several years of the St. Paul Community Chest, succeeds Mr. Carey at Duluth. The young chest at Los Angeles has acquired a permanent executive in the person of George M. Babcock.

TRAVELERS AID

TRAVELERS AID workers have long worn the familiar sheltering-palm-tree badge and its oriental symbolism has graced their desks in many a grimy railroad station. At the annual conference in Toronto last June the society decided to abandon this device, not only because it had ceased to typify the service rendered but because through long and sometimes unsystematic distribution it had come into the hand of unauthorized persons and had somewhat lost its value as a guarantee of disinterested and expert service. The new badge (shown here) displays the hemispheres in white with the continents and legend in blue, the whole surrounded by a band of red. The gold chain that links the hemispheres has obviously a message not only to the illiterate traveler, but also to all parties to the Transportation Agreement! At the January meeting of the board of directors of the National Association Marcus L. Bell of New York, vice-president and general counsel of the Rock Island Railroad, was elected its president. Division of the country into 32 sections each with a district chairman is expected to promote the local cooperation which, with the aid and collaboration of the railroad, will make the gold chain not only longer but firmer.

FANNIE S. JOHNSTON, of Chicago, has joined the field staff of The Survey as mid-western representative. Miss Johnston was for three and half years a court representative of the Legal Aid Bureau of Chicago and has served also as a mothers' pension worker with the Juvenile Court of Chicago. She is equipped with The Survey's book display and will welcome the opportunity to attend conferences and meetings of social workers, in the interests of The Survey. Miss Johnston should be addressed at Room 406, 308 North Michigan Ave., Chicago, Ill.

THE TRUSTEES of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund in Chicago have appointed as director Mary E. Murphy, who has for a number of years held executive positions with the organization. As assistant director Miss Murphy was associated with Mrs. Ira Couch Wood, late director of the Memorial Fund, and as executive in charge during the past months she has ably directed and organized the various activities. Miss Murphy's connection with the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund has covered a period during which the work has moved forward with steady growth. During the early years of its existence the Memorial Fund interested itself largely in work for infant welfare. Later on, it established and cooperated in maintaining the open air schools in Chicago, and promoted the standards elsewhere. At present nutrition work and general health education, and educational research form its main objectives, together with varied activities for the improvement of child life.

HASTINGS H. HART has resigned from the position of director of the department of child helping of the Russell Sage Foundation and has been appointed as consultant in delinquency and penology in the Foundation. He will respond to requests for service in this field from any part of the United States, especially with reference to legislation, administration, building and equipment. He has been interested in these subjects for more than forty years, and was president of the American Prison Association for the year 1922-1923. He has from time to time made studies, by request, of prisons and prison administration in Pennsylvania, Delaware, Virginia, South Carolina, North Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi and Missouri. William Hodson, formerly director of the division of child welfare legislation of the department of child helping, has been appointed director of the department of child helping, the title of which has been changed to the department of social legislation. The aim of this department is to study the form, content and administration of certain types of social welfare laws especially those relating to children and the family, the judicial decisions interpreting them and the experience of public and private case work organizations in their practical application; and to advise and to assist, upon request, state commissions on child welfare and public welfare, or other similar bodies, in the study and revision of their social welfare legislation.

AT the annual meeting of the American Sociological Association, in Chicago during the holidays, Professor C. A. Ellwood of the University of Missouri finished his term as president. The new president is Professor Robert E. Park of the University of Chicago, whose community studies have been attracting eager attention among sociologists and community workers, and who recently completed an extended field survey of interracial relations on the Pacific Coast under the auspices of the Institute for Social and Religious Research.

RESEARCH fellowships in the social sciences are offered by the Social Science Research Council, Inc. The terms of the grants may range from several months to as much as two years. Particulars may be had from F. Stuart Chapin, Folwell Hall 17, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis. Applications close March 1, 1925

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Referee of the Juvenile Court of Los Angeles

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JOINT COMMITTEE ON METHODS OF PREVENTING DELINQUENCY—Graham Romeyn Taylor, executive director, 50 East 42d Street, New York. To promote the adoption of sound methods in this field, with particular reference to psychiatric clinics, visiting teacher work, and training for these and similar services; to conduct related studies, education and publication; and to interpret the work of the Commonwealth Fund Program for the Prevention of Delinquency.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMENS CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, general secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient, Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Owen R. Lovejoy, sec'y: 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. Industrial, agricultural investigations. Works for improved laws and administration; children's codes. Studies health, schools, recreation, dependency, delinquency, etc. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10, $25 and $100; includes monthly bulletin, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC. (est. 1912, incorp. 1914), 70 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C. (tel. Chelsea 8774). Promotes as its chief object the building of character in the children of America through the harmonious development of their bodies, minds, and spirits. Its method is, in co-operation with other organizations, to originate and disseminate educational material in the form of posters, books, bulletins, charts, slides, and insignia. Through its "Knighthood of Youth" it provides homes, schools and church schools with a method of character training through actual practice. Officers: Dr. John H. Finley, Pres.; Amos L. Prescott, Treas.; hCarles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y.

THE NATIONAL OCMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC.—Dr. William H. Welch, honorary president; Dr. Charles P. Emerson, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical diector; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, secretary; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York, New York City. Pamphlets on mental hygiene, mental and nervous disorders, feeblemindedness, epilepsy, inebriety, delinquency, and other mental problems in human behavior, education, industry, psychiatric social service, etc. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $.50 a year.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Wm. J. Norton, president, Detroit, Michigan; W. H. Parker, Secretary, 25 East Ninth Street, Cincinnati, Ohio. The Conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-second annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Denver, Colorado, June 10th to 17th, 1925 Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, managing director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, secretary; 130 East 22nd St., New York. Objects: To furnish information, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, personal service for local organizations and legislation, publish literature of movement—samples free, quantities at cost. Includes New York State Committee.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN.—2109 Broadway, New York. Miss Rose Brenner, pres.; Mrs. Estelle M. Sternberger, ex. sec'y. Promotes civic cooperation, education, religion and social welfare in the United States, Canada, Cuba, Europe.
Department of Immigrant Aid—799 Broadway. Miss Florina Lasker, chairman. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls.
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NATIONAL LEAGUE OF GIRLS' CLUBS—Mrs. Fannie M. Pollak, president; Mary L. Ely, Educational Secretary. Non-sectarian and self-governing organization of working women's clubs for recreation and promotion of program in Adult Education. Vacation Camps. 472 West 24th St., New York City.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Member, National Health Council—Anne A. Stevens, R.N., director, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. For development and standardization of public health nursing. Maintains library and educational service. Official Magazine, "Public Health Nurse."

NATIONAL PHYSICAL EDUCATION SERVICE—315 Fourth Avenue, New York, N. Y. To obtain progressive legislation for physical education. Established at the request of a committee created by the United States Bureau of Education; 35 national organizations cooperating. Maintained by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. Dr. Livingston Farrand, president; Dr. Linsly R. Williams, managing director. Pamphlets on methods and programs for the prevention of tuberculosis. Publications sold and distributed through state associations in every state. Journal of the Outdoor Life, popular monthly magazine, $2.00 a year; American Review of Tuberculosis, medical journal. $3.00 a year; and Monthly Bulletin, house organ, free.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 127 E. 23rd St., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE—Mrs. Raymond Robins, honorary president; Mrs. Maud Swartz, president; 311 South Ashland Blvd., Chicago, Ill. Stands for self-government in the work shop through organization and also for the enactment of industrial legislation. Information given.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. Special attention given to organization of year-round municipal recreation systems. Information available on playground and community center activities and administration.

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THE SURVEY'S DIRECTORY

PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION LEAGUE—To secure representation for all. C. G. Hoag, sec'y, 1417 Locust St., Philadelphia. Membership, $2.00, entitles to quarterly P. R. Review.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION—For the Improvement of Living Conditions—John M. Glenn, dir.; 130 E. 22nd St., New York. Departments: Charity Organization, Child-Helping, Industrial Studies, Library, Recreation, Remedial Loans, Statistics, Surveys and Exhibits. The publications of the Russell Sage Foundation offer to the public in practical and inexpensive form some of the most important results of its work. Catalogue sent upon request.

TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE—An institution for the training of Negro Youth; an experiment in race adjustment in the Black Belt of the South; furnishes information on all phases of the race problem and of the Tuskegee idea and methods; Robert R. Moton, prin.; Warren Logan, treas.; A. L. Holsey, acting sec'y, Tuskegee, Ala.

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Communications

(*Continued from page* 613)

parents were neither willing to give the children the needed social and ethical training, nor willing to let the school do it. I have since then found this condition to be nearly universal. As one who takes the teaching profession seriously, I want the power to do my duty. In the recent Loeb and Leopold case we have seen where the "free discipline" of much contemporary education leads to; and I for one do not want to be party to producing Loebs and Leopolds.

STEPHEN G. RICH

Essex Fells, N. J.

Summer Conferences in Europe

TO THE EDITOR: May I make urgent request that some one look up the unusually large list of important meetings to be held abroad in the summer of 1925 and give full information, dates and places, in The Survey soon. All who go abroad will want to take in as many of these meetings as they can. The fact that the International Council of Women of so many countries is to meet here in the United States for the first time this coming May (May 4-14, Washington) will be an aid to any one desiring to plan a social work travel-trip to the best advantage. Information as to that conference can be obtained from Mrs. Philip North Moore, Lafayette Avenue, St. Louis, Mo. I am very desirous that The Survey early help all of us to know when and where the various meetings will be held and help us to prevent complications if there is still time to do so.

ANNA GARLIN SPENCER

New York

The Survey will gladly publish as complete a list as possible of such conferences, and asks the help of its readers in doing so. A partial list based on preliminary information supplied by Mrs. Spencer and others follows:

International Federation of Religious Liberals, London and Coblenz. Information from the American Unitarian Association, 25 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass.

World Federation of Education, Edinburgh. Information from Dr. A. W. Thomas, Superintendent of Education, Augusta, Me.

Conference in honor of Josephine Butler, pioneer in social hygiene, London or Geneva, late in June.

Second International Conference of Settlements, Chateau d'Argeronne, Normandy, France. Information from Capt. L. F. Ellis, Stapley House, 33 Bloomsbury Square, London, W. C. 1, England.

Nurses' Conference, Helsingfors, Finland, July 20-25. Information from Miss Reiman, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Women's Christian Temperance Union Conference, Edinburgh, July. Information from Anna Gordon, Rest Cottage, Evanston, Ill.

Universal Christian Conference of Life and Work, Stockholm. General Secretary, H. A. Atkinson, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York.

THE UNPRINTABLE TEXT BOOK

A handy pamphlet reprint of a stimulating article by Prof. Joseph K. Hart, Editor of The Survey's Education Department. Free to teachers on request. To others, 10 cents. The Survey, 112 East 19th Street, New York City.

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Address Advertising Department **THE SURVEY** 112 East 19th Street New York City

WORKERS WANTED

WANTED in a Philadelphia Hospital, a Social Case Worker, College Graduate with at least one year of Social Case Work Experience. Hospital Experience not necessary. 4996 SURVEY.

WANTED: In recognized Settlement in middle west, a man to act as Assistant Head Resident and Head of Men's Work. Age about thirty, background of culture and refinement, good mixer, with pep and resourcefulness and with demonstrated organizing ability. Someone intending to make social work his life work, willing to begin at moderate salary and prove ability to earn more. Must enjoy group life. Address, giving age, training, experience, whether married or single and salary required. 5033 SURVEY.

WANTED: Protestant woman with business and executive ability for position as Superintendent in Orphanage. 110 children. Address: Porter Home and Leath Orphanage, 850 No. Manassas Street, Memphis, Tenn.

A DIRECTOR and Case Worker are needed in a small home for Normal Problem girls. Only those vitally and intelligently interested will be considered for these positions. 5037 SURVEY.

NURSES, DOCTORS, TECHNICIANS of all kinds assisted in securing better places and better help. Hospitals, Schools and Industrial plants furnished with efficient nurses. We usually recommend only one applicant, never more than two or three. HUGHES PROFESSIONAL EXCHANGE, 603 Scarritt Building, Kansas City, Mo.

HEALTH WORKER wanted with training in dietetics for Jewish organization in large Eastern city. 5055 SURVEY.

LARGE SETTLEMENT not in New York City desires an experienced teacher in sewing and handcraft. Resident position. State age, education, experience, salary and when available. 5056 SURVEY.

CHRISTIAN MAN for Director of Boy's Camp near New York. State particulars concerning age, education and experience. 5057 SURVEY.

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WANTED: Young woman, Yiddish speaking, by a Philadelphia organization. Must have some college education and be a capable club organizer. References required. 5054 SURVEY.

WANTED TRAINED SOCIAL WORKER as Director to be in charge of girls' camp in Illinois April 15th to September 15th. State training, experience and full particulars, 5052 SURVEY.

MAN AND WIFE, Protestants, under forty, to be in charge of a cottage for boys in a country home and school for children, 90 miles from New York. 5053 SURVEY.

WANTED: Supervisor (male) for boys' department and supervisor (female) for girls' department; must be well qualified professionally and temperamentally, and preferably with successful experiences. Apply giving full particulars to Mr. E. Trotzkey, Superintendent Marks Nathan Jewish Orphan Home, 1550 South Albany Ave., Chicago, Ill.

WANTED: MATRON-HOUSEKEEPER, experienced, to take full responsibility of the domestic affairs of large child-caring Orthodox Jewish Institution. Good salary to right person. Apply, stating age, experience, references and salary required. E. Trotzkey, Marks Nathan Jewish Orphan Home, 1550 S. Albany Ave., Chicago, Ill.

EXPERIENCED JEWISH Case Worker in large middle Western city. College graduates preferred. Applicants who have had training with organized agency will be considered. 5048 SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED JEWISH worker in large middle Western city, for delinquent girls. Also worker for delinquent boys. Excellent opportunity offered. College graduate preferred. 5049 SURVEY.

RESIDENT HOUSEHOLD MANAGER for Jewish institution. Large resident family. Ability at purchasing and planning meals, supervising help, and care of building. 5046 SURVEY.

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WANTED: Editor. Favorable opportunity for physician grounded in public health, industrial hygiene and general welfare activities, to assist in the production of a technical magazine circulated to public health officials, industrial hygienists, health directors of schools and institutions. State qualifications and salary considered. 5043 SURVEY.

WANTED: Experienced Jewish family case worker for small New England organization employing only one worker. Apply with full statement of educational and professional qualifications. Also give salary expected. Box 5042 SURVEY.

TRAINED, EXPERIENCED woman executive for social service administrative position. Especially qualified for contact with public officials and community groups. 5044 SURVEY.

SITUATIONS WANTED

MAN SUPERINTENDENT of Children's Home, who has satisfactorily filled two similar positions in the last fifteen years, desires change about June 1st. 5026 SURVEY.

A CHANGE would be considered by a Superintendent of a very high type Children's Institution of excellent standing, one who is fully experienced and trained for the dependent or delinquent problem. Have been associated with state and private institutions. One who is an organizer and executive, a progressive, efficient, indefatigable worker. 5025 SURVEY.

SUPERINTENDENT of boys home, capable executive, eight years experience, five years in present position, age forty-nine, Protestant, Methodist, must have change of climate to benefit wife's health. Can give reference to other institutions, and to President and Chairman of the executive committee of my present board. Would prefer country institution for delinquent or dependent children. 5035 SURVEY.

HOUSEMOTHER or superintendent in school for boys or girls. Ten years experience as executive of boys and girls organization. 4994 SURVEY.

YOUNG LADY 32 years old wishes to change her position, five years experience as superintendent of children's home, and four years experience in hospital work as dietitian and manager. 5051 SURVEY.

A SECRETARY who cannot take dictation but who has a good measure of taste to make up for it. He has tact, sensitiveness and wit; he can write the perfunctory note without over formality and the inspired note when necessary—a young man who has individual qualities which will lighten the burden of an employer, 5050 SURVEY.

YOUNG MAN, Jewish, 22, wishes position in Settlement House as Recreation Teacher. 5047 SURVEY.

(In answering these advertisements please mention THE SURVEY. *It helps us, it identifies you.)*

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COLLEGE GRADUATE with teaching and social service experience desires position in school of social training. 5045 SURVEY.

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CHILDREN'S DIVISION, OHIO WELFARE CONFERENCE: Columbus. February 19-20. Secretary, Howard R. Knight, 277 E. Long St., Columbus.

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NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF DEANS OF WOMEN: Cincinnati. February 26-28. Secretary, Eloise Tremaine, Ferry Hall, Lake Forest, Ill.

ALL PHILADELPHIA WELFARE CONFERENCE: Philadelphia. March 3-5. President, George W. Norris, 311 S. Juniper St.

ALABAMA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Mobile. March 8-10. Secretary, James L. Sibley, State Child Welfare Department, Montgomery.

GEORGIA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Atlanta. March 18-20. Secretary, Burr Blackburn, Box 1284, Atlanta.

NATIONAL INTER-RACIAL CONFERENCE: Cincinnati. March 25-27. Secretary, Dr. George E. Haynes, Federal Council of Churches, 289 Fourth Avenue. New York City, and Dr. Will Alexander, Palmer Building, Atlanta, Georgia.

DELAWARE CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Wilmington. March 26-27. President, Merle E. MacMahon, Children's Bureau, 9th and King St., Wilmington.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF WOMEN VOTERS. Richmond, Va. April 16-22. Secretary, Gladys Harrison, 532 17th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

NORTH DAKOTA STATE NURSES: Bismarck. April 28-29. Secretary, Esther Teichmann, 811 Avenue C, Bismarck.

INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN: Washington, D. C. May 4-14.

GIRL SCOUT CONVENTION: Boston. May 20-23. National Director, Mrs. Jane Deeter Rippin, 670 Lexington Ave., New York City.

CALIFORNIA CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Sacramento. June 1-4. Secretary, Anita Eldridge, 55 New Montgomery St., San Francisco.

Y. M. C. A. SERVICE WITH BOYS, GENERAL ASSEMBLY: Estes Park, Colorado. June 4-12. Secretary, Ira E. Lute, 25 E. 16th Avenue, Denver, Colorado.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK: Denver. June 10-17. Secretary, William Hammond Parker, 25 E. Ninth St., Cincinnati, Ohio.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION: Minneapolis. June 15-20. Secretary. Dr. George M. Kober. 370 Seventh Ave., New York City.

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